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Proposed Historical Atlas of the United States¹

BY CHARLES O. PAULLIN, PH.D., OF THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION OF WASHINGTON.

For the past two years the Department of Historical Research of the Carnegie Institution of Washington has devoted considerable time to planning an Atlas of the Historical Geography of the United States and to collecting materials for its construction. Several specialists, including Prof. Frank H. Hodder of the University of Kansas, Prof. O. G. Libby of the University of North Dakota, Prof. Max Farrand of Yale University, and Prof. Jesse S. Reeves of the University of Michigan, each proficient in one or more of the subjects to be covered by the Atlas, have been called to Washington to give the Department the benefit of their special knowledge and to conduct investigations for the proposed work. The Department of Historical Research particularly desires to make the Atlas of the greatest possible use to the teachers and writers of American history, and it hopes that this paper may serve to call their attention to the undertaking and to secure their helpful coöperation. Any suggestions they may be pleased to offer at any time will be cordially welcomed. Considerable progress has been made in determining the contents of the Atlas, but many points remain unsettled, and what is now said respecting the inclusion of maps must be regarded as more or less tentative.

A few general observations respecting maps and atlases, though somewhat elementary, may not be out of place. An atlas is a collection of maps, and a map is a more or less symbolic or conventional representation on a flat surface of all or a part of the surface of the earth. By means of lines, characters, figures, words, and colors, both geographical and historical facts may be represented.

Among the advantages which maps possess over diagrams, statistical tables and narrative history or geography is the facility with which they admit of comparisons both in space and in time. A single map admits of comparisons in space. Thus, a map of the United States shows the relative positions of the objects represented and the relative distances between these objects. A series of maps admits of comparisons in time. Thus, a series of historical maps of the United States, say one for every decennial year, might be constructed which would show the successive stages in the history of that country, and make it possible to compare one stage with another.

Obviously not all kinds of historical information

can be represented on maps. Most of the information found in descriptive and narrative histories and in other standard historical works is not cartographical and cannot be made so. Such information is not sufficiently definite and quantitative. Only things that have been counted, measured, or located can be represented on maps. The history that is needed may be termed mathematical history.

According to present plans the completed Atlas exclusive of text, will contain 200 pages measuring 22 by 14 inches, or about that. The largest maps will be approximately the size of the full page, many maps will be about one-fourth that size, and many still smaller.

The area covered by the maps of the proposed Atlas will be generally the whole or a part of the continental United States. Occasionally, however, it may be found desirable to represent our detached possessions, the adjacent parts of Canada and Mexico, the West Indies, and parts of the North Atlantic and North Pacific Oceans. With possibly a few exceptions all the maps will fall within the period fixed by the discovery of America in 1492 and the present time. These exceptions are the maps illustrating the geology of the United States and the early aborigines.

The following general headings of a proposed table of contents show the principal classes of maps that might properly find a place in the Atlas: physical geography, aborigines, early maps of America, routes of explorers and colonizers, boundaries and divisions, industrial and social maps, political maps, city maps, and military maps.

Maps relating to the physical geography of the United States have been placed first in the table of contents, for they will form the background or the groundwork of the Atlas. They will show the physical environment or the environmental influences that condition American history. They are not historical maps, and with a possible exception or two, cannot be shown in series, since the physical geography of the United States has changed but little in the last five hundred years. Among the features that might be represented are the following: Geological strata, the continental ice sheet, river basin areas, watersheds, topography of the United States, isotherms, isobars, prevailing winds, storm tracks, rainfall, sunshine, zones of vegetable and animal life, and natural resources. Ample information for these maps will be found in the books treating of these subjects.

Following the physical maps might come maps re-

¹ A paper read at the annual meeting of the American Historical Association, December 29, 1913.

lating to the aborigines, on which should be shown the geographical distribution of the stationary monuments or mounds of the early inhabitants of America, the location of Indian tribes, the location of linguistic families of Indians, Indian land cessions, Indian reservations, the evolution of the Indian territory, Indian routes and trails, and the Indian population, 1860—1910. There is much information on these subjects, some of which is more or less indefinite. The location of Indian tribes and of linguistic stocks is highly technical. Indian cessions is too large a subject to be represented in its entirety. Important cessions, or some small area regarded as typical of the whole, could be shown.

Another highly technical subject is that of early cartography or early maps showing the progress of European peoples in their knowledge of America. An approach to this subject may be made through the well-known books of Winsor, Stevenson, Harrisse, Ganong, and Avery. Under this head, if a simple procedure is followed, the most important matters are the determining of what is to be shown or illustrated, the making of a selection of maps, and the reproduction of these maps. It has been suggested that the following things might be illustrated:

- (1) The early period of the discovery of America,
- (2) the gradual completion of knowledge of the Atlantic and Gulf coast lines, (3) the same for the Pacific coast, and (4) the same for the Lakes and the interior. The early maps doubtless conform to types, and the selection of a few maps of each type will prove sufficient.

One of the most important sections of the Atlas will be devoted to boundaries and divisions, a subject which readily admits of cartographical treatment, and in respect to which abundant information is available. Disregarding Indian boundary lines, if such there were, one may conceive of the present United States as unmarked and undivided in 1600, a virgin domain without boundaries and divisions. Since that date, it has been carved into numerous divisions by means of numerous lines. The number of these divisions and lines in different parts of the country vary greatly, being many where the population is dense, as in New York state or city, and few where the population is sparse, as in the Rocky Mountain region.

Boundaries may be classified as (1) political (separating peoples or nations), (2) colonial (separating parts of the same people and tending with the passage of time to merge into administrative boundaries), (3) administrative (such as lines marking off states, Congressional districts, counties, townships, parishes, school districts, church dioceses, etc.), and (4) property (such as lines marking off land grants, farms, town lots, manors, etc.).² Divisions may be classified in a similar manner.

In an atlas of the size contemplated it is possible to treat fully, if not completely, the first two classes, that is the classes designated "political" and "colo-

nial." No such treatment is possible nor even desirable respecting the last two classes, that is, the classes designated "administrative" and "property." Every year many thousands of new property lines are established and many thousands of old lines are changed or abandoned. The changes made in the administrative lines are numerous, even for so large a unit as the county. The determining of all the county lines in the United States since 1789 would be a work of much magnitude. The somewhat lesser task of determining the county lines for each census year, the accomplishing of which would greatly facilitate the cartographical treatment of social and industrial statistics, is no small undertaking. Not only the large number of counties, now upwards of 3,000 in number, but many other circumstances complicate the task. When new states are in the process of being settled and divided, the changes in county lines are exceedingly frequent. Sometimes the language of statutes creating counties is ambiguous or indefinite, or refers to local or temporary objects and lines that have disappeared. Occasionally it will be difficult to find the statute creating the county. Many of the early maps show the county lines more or less inaccurately, and as they existed at the date of publication of the map. The actual line may not be precisely the line described in the public document. Thus the northwest boundary of the United States, as marked by monuments, is not the 49th meridian, but an irregular line running first on one side and then on the other of that meridian. The first step toward making a complete and accurate representation of county lines is the compilation of all the statutes of all the States relating to county boundaries. One may estimate that there are several thousand pages of such statutes. The second step is the procuring of all available maps showing the county boundary and other lines, and the local monuments and physical features referred to in these statutes. Thus equipped the cartographer will be able to solve many of the difficulties that he will encounter.

The maps that could be made illustrating boundaries and divisions are almost innumerable. A few possible subjects only will be named: Indian lines, boundaries described in early charters, patents, commissions, instructions, treaties, etc., lines necessary to explain the negotiations of 1782 at Paris, international, colony and state boundary disputes, the colonies during the colonial period, European claims to territory, proposed colonies and states, claims of states to the original domain, land cessions to the United States, administrative divisions of all kinds, typical maps showing such divisions, territorial acquisitions, methods of public survey, methods of settlement, varieties of land tenure, and important property grants. Owing to the absence of statistics, it is not possible to represent with precision the land held at any given time by the federal government.

The growing importance of social and industrial history will be recognized by allotting considerable space to this subject. It may be treated under the following heads: population (especially in respect to numbers and classes), industries and occupations (in-

² William F. Ganong, "Evolution of the Boundaries of New Brunswick," pp. 147-149.

cluding agriculture, manufacturing, mining, fisheries, trade and commerce and transportation), public finance, and social statistics (including education, religion, reforms, philanthropy, and social movements). The historical information upon which the industrial and social maps must be based is relatively scarce and scattering for the colonial period, but from 1790 to the present time we have the large and compact body of facts to be found in the Census publications. It was not customary to do much census taking or systematic gathering of statistics in colonial times, especially before 1700. To treat the colonial period adequately will therefore be impossible. It will not be easy to represent so elementary a fact as density of population, although something may be done for the years 1745-1775. Colonial information of such character that it may be represented by dots or lines, like the location of settlements, churches and schools, transportation routes, routes of explorers, military marches, etc., may be represented.

Beginning with the census of 1790, the federal government has been more or less active in collecting and compiling statistical information. Various offices have performed work of this kind, but the principal statistical office is the office which, under one designation or another, has been entrusted with the taking of the decennial census. Its publications are the chief source of information for the social and industrial maps for the period 1790-1910. Dealing with conditions which have varied from decade to decade, subject to discontinuance and reorganization until 1902, when it was made permanent, manned more or less by political recruits, the census office has been unable to plan its work systematically or for considerable periods of time, to follow the highest standards of census taking, or to make use of the most efficient personnel. As a result the value of its publications for map making is considerably reduced. It is especially annoying to find that the figures of one census are not comparable with those of another, or to find that a subject of inquiry in one census has been abandoned in another. The number of questions asked has increased from census to census, being 4 in 1790 and 13,161 a century later in 1890. During the same period the number of subjects in respect to which inquiries were made increased from 1 to 31. The only subject before 1840, with the exception of 1810 and 1820 when some questions respecting manufactures were asked, was population. In 1840 for the first time questions were asked respecting such important subjects as agriculture, mines and mining, fish and fisheries, commerce, and education. Maps on these subjects, based on the census statistics, can not be made earlier than 1840. If perchance maps might be made from figures drawn from other sources they probably would not be comparable with maps made from the census figures.

From what has been said one may obtain a notion of some of the difficulties of map-making that result from the absence of data and from the lack of accuracy and uniformity in the data that we have. The number of maps illustrating social and industrial his-

tory that might be made is however far in excess of the limits for this class of maps set by the size of the Atlas. Some notion of what might be done may be obtained by an inspection of the Census atlases for 1890 and 1900.

A considerable portion of the Atlas will be devoted to political statistics, which will be treated somewhat after the method of Professor Turner and his students. The political maps will show groupings of political sentiment, or its geographical distribution. They will correlate politics with geography, and will form a graphic study of sectionalism in American politics. They will show not only the main sections of the union, North and South, East and West, and frontier and non-frontier, but the minor ones also, uplands and lowlands, regions of rich soil and regions of poor soil, regions settled by natives and regions settled by immigrants, agricultural regions, manufacturing regions, etc. It is planned to have a series of maps showing the distribution of votes, by counties, at all the presidential elections from 1800 to 1912, also a series showing the distribution of votes in the lower house of Congress on some thirty or more important national measures. The possibilities of representation in this field are very great, but we cannot here enter into details. Nor can we, for want of time, describe what might be done in the two final divisions of the Atlas illustrating the history of cities and military history.

The last number of "Vergangenheit und Gegenwart" for 1913 is of special interest to teachers of history in this country as it not only contains the usual articles, but is accompanied by a supplement containing a complete record of the proceedings of the newly-organized association of German teachers of history which met at Marburg on the 29th of September. Possibly the recent report of the British committee on the battle of Trafalgar suggested Dr. Koch's article upon the development of the battleship from Trafalgar to the present. Dr. Willenbuecher devotes sixteen pages to a detailed discussion of the great fire in Rome and the persecution of the Christians in which he devotes considerable space to the various questions in dispute and suggests various lines of attack for the classroom. One of his suggestions is that the fire be made the occasion for presenting the topography of Rome and for taking stock of the city's artistic debt to Greece. The idea of correlation stands out prominently throughout the article. The bibliographical portion of the magazine is devoted to a careful summary of the literature of the Counter Reformation and the period of absolutism immediately preceding the French Revolution. In the opening address before the newly formed association Dr. Neubauer presented some of the tasks which seemed to confront that body. Some of these have a familiar ring, e. g. the place of history in the curriculum, the aim of historical instruction, the relation of history to training for citizenship, etc. The principal address was delivered by Professor Bernheim whose book on method is well known in this country. His paper on the training of the teacher of history is a painstaking piece of work full of suggestions for the secondary teacher. Dr. Dobritsch discusses the principle of history instruction through the use of illustration. The German course of study receives due notice in a paper on the work done in Prima. Fifty-three persons are listed as having participated in the organization of the association.

A Hidden Cause of the Mexican War

BY MOSES W. WARE, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

The obvious cause of the war between Mexico and the United States was the annexation of Texas. The history of this conflict has been usually approached from the point of view of the slave-holders' desire for more territory. Texas, because of its fertile soil and alluring climate as well as its juxtaposition with the slave-holding States of the South, was naturally destined to become saddled with the peculiar institution. This fact, coupled with the desire of the South for more territory out of which States could be formed to balance the political preponderance of the North has made it easy for historical writers to treat the whole question of the annexation of Texas from the viewpoint of the slavery interests. It is perfectly clear, however, that other forces of a more subtle character were operating for the consummation of this event. Texas, it will be remembered, was practically settled by citizens of the United States¹ who, by agreeing to fulfil certain conditions, obtained large grants of land from the Mexican Government. Settlers were allowed to come individually or as members of a contractor's (empresario) company. The first of these grants was awarded to Stephen Austin in February, 1823. By 1836, a map of Texas² shows that all the country between the Sabine and Nueces, south of the Red River, had been apportioned among individuals or companies in the form of about a dozen grants, the largest of which were those of Austin, Woodbury,³ and Cameron. In like manner, and for certain returns, exclusive privileges were granted by the Mexican Government: thus, John L. Woodbury and John Cameron had a monopoly on all the coal and iron mines of the State for a period of twenty-three years.⁴ It may thus be inferred that those who held claims in Texas, or their heirs, had a strong interest in the political stability of that country and in winning an independence which would secure to them the possession of these various titles and claims.

The immediate cause of the revolutionary movement was the rise to power of Bustamante, who forbade the further introduction of slaves into Texas, and sent soldiers into the important towns to enforce his rule. In the events that followed, Santa Anna identified himself for a time with the cause of the Texans, but when he was elevated to the presidency, he deserted the Republicans who had placed him in power, and rejected the proposition of the Texans for a separate government.

During this war for independence (1830-1836) which ended in the victory of San Jacinto, it is im-

portant to note what measures were taken by those in the United States to secure the interests they held either in land, or depreciated Texas bonds, or notes which had been issued to defray the expenses of the struggling Republic. In 1830 three great land companies were organized in New York for the express purpose of promoting these ends. "Of the immense tracts of land designated for colonization in the various contracts entered into with the different empresarios those granted to Zavala, Vehlein and Burnet were united and transferred to a company in New York called the 'Galveston Bay and Texas Land Company.' This company was fully organized on the 16th of October, 1830."⁵ One of the directors of this company was Dudley Seldon, who was a member of Congress from New York from 1833-35. In the same way the grant to Dominguez, Wilson and Dexter was transferred to another company under the title of the "Arkansas and Texas Land Company." Edward Curtis, one of the directors of this company, was likewise, at a subsequent date (1837-1839), a member of Congress from New York. Later, a third company was organized entitled the "Rio Grande Company."⁶ These companies, organized for the perfectly legitimate motive of protecting American interests in Texas, soon became engaged in a speculation which was earnestly and persistently encouraged by the Texas Government whose object it was to create in this way an American interest in Texas affairs. The following quotation is an indication of the extent to which this speculation was carried on. "These several companies created stocks upon the basis of those grants and threw them into the market. They also issued 'scrip,' authorizing the holders of it to take possession of certain tracts of land. . . . Thousands in various parts of the United States have purchased the scrip issued by them and are interested, of course, in the adoption of measures, to legalize their claims," i. e., by annexation. . . . "The scrip being transferable, a large portion of it has fallen into the hands of needy adventurers, who likewise are willing to encourage any measures that may seem calculated to promote their immediate pecuniary interests."⁷ These words were written when Texas was asking for the recognition of her independence by the United States and by an Abolitionist who sought to prove that the whole annexation movement was promoted by "a vast combination" existing for the perpetuation of slavery. But he admits the fallacy of his own argument by saying that this "combination" is not "formally organized." It must be perfectly obvious that these land companies organized in the North operated entirely independently of the slave interests—that those who

¹ Messages and Papers of the Presidents, IV, 308.

² McMaster, V, 12.

³ The Woodbury Grant comprised an area equal to that of Vermont, New Hampshire and Rhode Island.

⁴ Yoakum's History of Texas, pp. 126, 784.

⁵ B. Lundy's "The War in Texas," p. 22 (1836).

⁶ Ibid, p. 22.

⁷ The War in Texas, p. 22.

held land scrip issued by them were anxious for the redemption of this scrip entirely irrespective of their views on slavery. This position becomes more tenable when we consider the persistence which the Texas authorities displayed in enacting revenue measures which would encourage an indebtedness through speculation. In order to make this point clear, let us see how Texas from 1830-1841 accumulated a debt of \$7,000,000, for which, in one way or another, she had hypothecated nearly 70,000,000 acres of her territory!

First, Texas had financed her revolution largely through granting military bounty lands. The following resolution of the Texas Congress illustrates how these lands were distributed. "Whereas, many individuals of the United States have left their homes to volunteer in the service of this country, it is hereby resolved that bounties of land be granted, as follows: (1) To all now in service or who shall serve during the war, 1,280 acres; (2) to all who serve faithfully for six months, 640 acres; (3) faithful service for three months, 320 acres."⁸ Provision was also made for the heirs of such grantees. These lands were not always occupied, but were often sold in the United States by the original grantees (particularly when the annexation movement slumbered under Van Buren's administration) to speculators. These claims formed another item in the indebtedness of Texas to creditors in the United States who were most urgent for annexation. Again, it is a mistake to regard such speculators as actuated by any other motives than those of pecuniary profit.

A perusal of the policy of the Texas Government in its financial affairs will show that it was the deliberate intent of those who directed its affairs to create an indebtedness in the United States which would ultimately force annexation. Thus in March, 1836, Mr. B. T. Archer, Secretary of Treasury for Texas, said, "Some of our brethren of the United States of the North, hearing of our difficulties have come to our aid; many more ere long will be with us. . . . It will be proper for this convention to secure them the rights and privileges of citizens and to secure to their land 'in head rights' and place them on the same footing with those of our citizens who have not yet obtained their lands."⁹ The policy of interesting United States citizens in Texas land and other securities is also seen in the various acts of the Texas Government. On December 4, 1836, the Provisional Government of Texas tried to negotiate a loan of a million dollars. The bonds under this loan were to be payable after not more than ten years in "the city of New York, or any other city of the United States." An act of December 5 empowered three commissioners in the United States "to pledge or hypothecate the public lands of Texas and to *pledge the public faith of Texas!*" In the same year "Thomas Toby, a gentleman who had already made considerable advances on account of the government . . . was authorized to issue scrip to

the amount of a million acres to be sold at fifty cents an acre."¹⁰ Numerous agents were also appointed to peddle land scrip in the United States. On the 29th of October, 1837, Mr. Smith, Secretary of the Treasury, announced the policy so consistently pursued by his government from the beginning. His particular plan was to fund all outstanding claims of every description, including the treasury notes bearing interest, and issue others *bearing no interest*: "The stock created as above," he said, "would float off to the United States and even to Europe and fall into the hands of bankers and capitalists, *thereby increasing a foreign interest in our favor*; for it is with governments as with individuals, and I presume it is a matter well understood in banking transactions that *banking institutions will not permit a firm or an individual to fail who has become largely indebted to them*—for the ties of interest are as a threefold cord and not easily broken."¹¹ This stock did float off to the United States, and an interest was thereby created which rendered important aid to the Texans in their favorite measure of annexation.¹²

Up to the time of annexation with the United States, Texas had pledged in one way or another 67,408,673 acres of her land out of a total of 203,520,000 acres,¹³ the amount claimed by Texas, including the land between the Nueces and the Rio Grande.

The Triplet loan of January 11, 1836, of \$20,070, was liquidated in 1852 by a grant of 153,357 acres.¹⁴ Philip Triplet was a member of Congress from Kentucky in the years 1839-43.¹⁵

The largest single loan which Texas negotiated was with the Pennsylvania Bank of the United States for \$400,000. This loan was negotiated in 1836 by General Hamilton, the fiscal agent for Texas, with Nicholas Biddle¹⁶ and Mr. Jaudon, ex-officials of the United States Bank. This bank failed in 1841, and when its accounts were being examined an entry of about the date of its charter for \$400,000 was found for which vouchers could not be produced.¹⁷ Very probably this was the Texan loan. At all events this loan represents the close interest of northern capital in Texas affairs and was a potent factor, as we shall see, in bringing about annexation. Another illustration of this allied interest is seen in 1840 when General Hamilton offered Mr. Jaudon, ex-cashier of the United States Bank, the presidency of a proposed national bank for the Republic of Texas; or, again, in the fact

⁸ Passed March 17, 1836, Niles L. 219.

⁹ Gouge's "Fiscal History of Texas," p. 85.

¹⁰ Burnet's Message to Texas Congress, Niles LI, 187.

¹¹ Quoted in Gouge, p. 85, December, 1838.

¹² Gouge, p. 86.

¹³ Niles LXIII, p. 66.

¹⁴ Gouge, p. 80.

¹⁵ Benton's Thirty Years, II, p. 214.

¹⁶ On September 6, 1838, Mr. Biddle wrote to Daniel Webster, asking for the latter's advice on making Texas a \$5,000,000 loan. "You will readily understand," he said, "that I am predisposed to serve Texas because I believe I should benefit our country by it." Van Tyne's "Webster's Letters," p. 213.

¹⁷ Gouge, pp. 98, 108, 196, Summer's "Jackson," p. 396.

that the money authorized by the Texas government on January 10, 1839, for the purchase of vessels for a navy was raised largely in the city of Baltimore.¹⁸ Practically the total debt of Texas for which nearly 70,000,000 acres of land had been hypothecated up to the time of annexation is given below:

Funded debt bearing 10% interest . . .	\$1,650,000
Bonds pledged and sold	1,350,000
Treasury Notes without interest	3,000,000
Debts of various descriptions	1,000,000

\$7,000,000

Having now established the fact that there were many persons in the United States financially interested in Texas securities and that at least three of these, Dudley Seldon, Edward Curtis and Philip Triplet, were members of the National Legislature when the sentiment in that body for annexation was strong, it remains to determine how far these speculating interests actually influenced the act of annexation. John Q. Adams, who is so often quoted as attributing the whole annexation movement to the slavery propagandists, said in September, 1842, at Braintree, Mass.: "But there was another more hidden impulse to this extreme solicitude for the recognition of the independence of Texas *working in the free States, quite as ready to assume the mask and cap of liberty, as the slave-dealing champions*. . . . The Texas land and liberty jobbers had spread the contagion of their land-jobbing traffic all over the free States throughout the Union. . . . The banks were all plunging into desperate debts. . . . Gambling speculation was the madness of the day; and in the widespread ruin which we are now witnessing, Texan bonds and Texan land form no small portion of the fragments from the wreck of money corporations, contributing to their assets two or three cents to the dollar. All these interests furnished vociferous declaimers for the annexation of Texas."¹⁹

How well the speculators played their part is seen in the protection the government proposed to afford them in the Treaty of Annexation. In Art. V of that treaty it was provided that the United States should assume and agree to pay the public debts and liabilities of Texas to the extent of ten million dollars.²⁰ To be sure this provision cannot be ascribed solely to the political manipulations of the speculating interests, but its origin may certainly be traced to a cause quite independent of the question of slavery—a cause which Calhoun and others took up purely for the sake of furthering their own interests. Senator Berrien of Georgia pointed out in the debate on this treaty who the real beneficiaries of annexation were, and the influence they brought to bear is reflected in the provision mentioned above: "Who, then," he said, "will be benefited in the South by the acquisition of Texas? . . . It will be the holders of Texan stock, which is now comparatively valueless, but which

is to mount up to par by our assumption to pay Texan debts. This advance, then, you see, sir, is to be paid by those of us who are not holders of Texan stock, and the privilege of our contributing our proportion of that advance is the benefit which we all gain. But there is another class who will profit by this acquisition. They are holders of land scrip or other evidences of titles of lands in Texas. This is now worth some cents per acre. . . . But if Texas be the El Dorado which it is represented to be, whether it is or not. . . . the result of the ratification of this treaty will be that Texan lands will alone be in demand in the market (the sales of them will, of course, be pressed by the government to enable it to meet its engagements) and the proceeds of the debt are pledged for the payment of the Texan debt."

"If these views are correct, it must, I think, be manifest that the South will derive no pecuniary profit from the ratification of this treaty. Indeed, if the question is to be considered in its sectional aspect, it seems to me quite plain that the North rather than the South will reap the harvest of this adventure in the new market which it would open to her manufacturers."²¹ This speech taken in conjunction with that of Mr. Adams' together with other evidence cited would seem to indicate that the North held most of the Texan securities, and was, therefore, just as responsible as the South for the success of the annexation movement. This position becomes stronger when it is considered that the joint resolution for annexing Texas was passed by no considerable majority²²—a majority which, perhaps, could not have been obtained without an alliance between the "land-jobbing and slave-jobbing" interests. The joint resolution was practically as favorable to the speculators as the Treaty of Annexation which failed, for, all the vacant and unappropriated land of which there were 136,111,327 acres, was pledged to the payment of the debts and liabilities of the Republic.

And concerning the influence of the speculators in passing the annexation resolution there is additional proof. Mr. Benton, who was certainly no friend of slavery extension, said, "During the whole continuance of these debates in the Senate, the lobbies of the Senate were crowded with speculators in Texas land scrip, and lands, and with holders of Mexican claims all working for the ratification of the treaty which would bring with it an increase of value to their property and war with Mexico, to be followed by a treaty providing for their demands. They also infested the State Department, the presidential mansion, all the public places, and kept the newspapers in their interests filled with abuse and false accusation vs. the Senators who stood between themselves and their prey. . . . Persons employed by the government were

¹⁸ Gouge, pp. 94, 197.

¹⁹ Niles LXIII, pp. 136 ff.

²⁰ Calhoun's Works, V, p. 324.

²¹ Cong. Globe XIII, App. 702. See also Memorial of Citizens of New York. "Texas would be a customer to the United States to a large extent—of her purchases, for the produce and manufactures of the United States." Senate Document 139, Vol. III, February 22, 1844.

²² Passed in the House by a majority of 120 to 97, Benton II, 633.

known to be in the ranks of these speculators; and to uncover them to the public, Mr. Benton submitted this resolution: *Resolved*, 'That the Committee on Foreign Affairs be instructed to inquire whether any provisions are necessary to protect the United States from speculating operations in Texas lands or scrips and whether any persons employed by the government are connected with such speculation.'"²³ The resolution failed, but the fact that Mr. Benton considered it necessary to act as he did is sufficient proof of the activity of the speculators in forcing annexation.

During the war a party developed in Mexico which was closely allied with the land speculators who promoted the annexation movement. This party proposed the absorption of Mexico by the United States and the assumption of all her debts, and the scheme acquired such notoriety and "stuck so close to some members of the administration" that the President in a message to Congress felt obliged to clear himself from suspicion.²⁴ "It has never been contemplated by me as an object of the war, to make a permanent conquest of Mexico nor annihilate her existence as a separate nation."²⁵

At the conclusion of the war came the signing of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo and with it the benefits for which the Northern speculators had so persistently labored. On this point Mr. Benton said, "But the largest gratified interest was one which did not appear on the face of the treaty, but had the full benefit of being included in it. They were the speculators in Texas lands and scrip, now allowed to calculate largely upon their increase value as coming under the flag of the American Union. They were the original promoters of the Texas annexation, among

the most clamorous for war, and among the gratified at peace."²⁶

It is also the weakness of many historical writers to over-estimate the desire in the South for the dominions of Texas. In all probability the sentiment in the South for annexation²⁷ was no stronger than that in the North, the difference being that the speculative interests worked silently but no less effectively. These statements are largely substantiated by the reply of the lower House of the South Carolinian legislature to Governor McDuffie's message to that body in 1836: "The Committee fully agree with his excellency on the propriety and sound policy of the United States maintaining a strict neutrality . . . with Mexico in her contest with Texas. . . . South Carolina cannot consent, *under a supposed idea of self-interest* to violate the sanctity of the law of nations. . . . Under the present circumstances, to acknowledge the independence of Texas . . . could be no less than a declaration of war against Mexico and of doubtful policy to the older slave-holding States."²⁸

It has been my endeavor to show that (1) it was the deliberate policy of the Texas authorities from 1836 to 1845 to encourage an indebtedness in the United States the payment of which would be rendered possible only through annexation; (2) the great part of this debt, in whatever form, was held by citizens in the free states of the North; (3) the annexation movement was effected by an alliance between these holders of depreciated Texas securities and the pro-slavery leaders of the South; (4) that these two interests were of an entirely independent origin, each equally potent in involving the United States in the war with Mexico.

A Working Museum of History

BY PROFESSOR EDWARD CARLTON PAGE, NORTHERN ILLINOIS STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, DEKALB, ILL.

The entire range of history is in the past. With the exception of the comparatively few happenings in which one may have participated or which one may have witnessed, nearly all of history is beyond direct observation. Consequently, in endeavoring to obtain historical knowledge, we must rely almost wholly upon the reconstructive imagination. These statements seem almost like truisms. Yet teachers of history, until comparatively recently, have very largely neglected the use of such concrete aids as are available. For a good while some have made more or less liberal use of maps and charts to aid in making real the geographic factor in history. More recently others have availed themselves of pictures, lantern slides, and other similar means for visualizing history. But we have almost wholly relegated to the investigator the remains which man has left as the tangible evidence of his thought and endeavor.

Furthermore, the average teacher of history and

many research students have seemed to think that about all the remains of former days worthy of attention are a ruined Parthenon, a mutilated Venus de Milo, a moldering Magna Charta, or an ancient implement of tempered copper. Consequently, to visualize the past by means of these things has involved long journeys to historical localities and infrequent visits to great museums. This has meant that these aids have been for the few, who perhaps have needed them the least, and have been beyond the reach of the many, who needed them the most.

²⁶ Benton II, 710.

²⁷ Henry Clay held the following opinion: "You have justly conceived my meaning, when I referred in my Texas letter, to a considerable portion of the Confederacy (being opposed to annexation). And you might have strengthened your construction of the paragraph by reference to the fact that at the date of my letter . . . the legislature of Georgia had declined to recommend it, and other States were believed to be adverse to the measure"—letter of Henry Clay to S. H. Miller, July 1, 1844. Clay's Private Correspondence, p. 490.

²⁸ Niles LI, p. 242, December 17, 1836.

²³ Benton II, 623.

²⁴ Benton II, 704.

²⁵ President's Message, 1847, Messages and Papers, IV, 544.

Long ago the truth of the situation began to dawn upon us. So along through the years of our teaching we have endeavored to discover historical value in the things about us and, in a small way, have sought to make use of the things obtainable to give concreteness to our teaching and hence to vitalize our work. But, little could be done in the way of sustained and systematic endeavor until two years ago when an enlargement of the teaching force of the department and the occupancy of a new building afforded opportunity for beginning the collection of a working museum of history. The results have been surprising to ourselves and seem to be even astonishing to many observers.

The first of our great purposes has been to assemble a museum *for use*. Most historical museums have been "esoteric and aesthetic mausoleums," as Stanley Hall somewhere has well said. We have sought rather the greatest good to the largest number possible. While acting as a conservator of the remains of past generations, we would have our museum an aggressive educational agency or force. How we have sought to carry out our ideal will appear later.

Our second great purpose has been to levy tribute upon the *small things* of life. The great works of art and architecture, the great documents of statecraft, and the other monuments of the past are the exceptional and the unusual, albeit they do embody the ideals of the generations. But the every-day life of the every-day people, if we can only find it out, wonderfully illumines these great and more spectacular happenings. Hence, it is that the common things—the rubbish—of one generation may become the priceless treasure of the next. Hence it is that that dusty-colored cartoon of Civil War days, with its eagle hatching a brood of Southern reptile traitors, which was brought to us the other day, is of more value for our purposes than if it had been the long-lost "Mona Lisa." It gained in value by being in the old-fashioned frame with the blue woollen picture-cord still attached.

Another purpose has become clearly-defined with experience. Our collection is to be *for instruction* and not merely to excite interest or to satisfy curiosity. Hence typical objects are sought rather than the rare or the abnormal. A pine-tree shilling serves a better purpose than a silver dollar of 1804, though the former may be obtained for a nominal sum and the latter is worth its thousands of dollars because only five are known to exist.

Now as to the installation of objects and the administration of the museum. The cardinal principle, determining every act, is to obtain the greatest possible usefulness. First, then, the museum is always open. The doors are never locked. Whenever one can gain access to the Normal building, he can gain access to the museum. Small articles, likely to be stolen or easily injured by dust or by indiscriminate handling, are kept in locked glass cases. All others are openly exposed. A large sign, swung across the corridor, proclaims MUSEUM OF HISTORY. Every object is carefully labelled with its name and a brief description of its use, if necessary. In some cases, the description is aided by a picture. For instance,

an ox-yoke has attached to it a picture of an ox-team, showing clearly how the yoke is used. The museum thus becomes self-explanatory. No guide nor catalogue is necessary. The label also carries the name of the donor. The articles are carefully placed so that one is not allowed to obstruct a view of another. Even with crowded cases this condition may be retained, if care and ingenuity are exercised. Objects with inscriptions or other features difficult to see are given positions with favorable light, as far as possible. Wherever a number of objects, showing steps in the development of a process or of a phase of life, are obtained, they are installed, as far as may be, in chronological sequence, thus helping to show history as an evolutionary process and a dynamic energy. Thus, for example, we have accumulated twenty or more objects showing steps in the problem of getting fire and making light, from the primitive fire-sticks down to the means of to-day.

In the administration of the museum, ever remembering the purpose to subserve the greatest possible usefulness, we studiously have avoided rules and regulations. Everything in the collection is freely loaned, except a very few objects which are too fragile to be handled (for instance, a charred book from the Chicago fire) or are too large to move (for example, an old-time link-and-pin car coupler, which was used before the days of the automatic coupler). A simple memorandum is made of articles loaned, of the name of the borrower, and of the date. No time limit is set, but presumably material will be returned as soon as it has served its purpose. It is subject to recall at any time.

The primary use of the museum is by our department of history in the Normal School and by our two Training Schools. But not infrequently calls for material are made by other departments of the Normal School, notably the departments of science, drawing and geography. Liberal use of our facilities is made by the schools of the city of DeKalb. Clubs and individuals are also freely accommodated whenever possible.

One morning a short time ago, in taking up our daily "checking," it was discovered that there was not a single object out of the museum for use. That was the first time such a condition had existed for at least three months. Before the day was over, however, upwards of twenty objects had gone out to three different schools. This incident will give a slight indication of the extent to which the borrowing privilege is used.

It may be remarked, in passing, that articles are not loaned to student-teachers and critics or to others without ascertaining whether they understand fully the use and significance of the articles, and they are expected to explain carefully the same to the pupils. The mere excitement of interest is not a sufficient justification for a museum of history.

There are other ways by which we put our museum to use. Children from the schools in small classes or groups are brought to the rooms to study series of objects. They are not allowed to look about aimlessly, but their attention is directed to those things which

will illumine the particular topic in history which they are studying. The other day the teacher of a rural school, out on one of the interurban lines, brought in one of her classes for three quarters of an hour of such study.

On anniversary occasions or when current news attracts attention to particular events or movements, we endeavor to arrange special exhibits. We try not to have these displays so frequently that they lose their force, but yet we wish to have them frequently enough for them to be a real educative influence. The corridor adjacent to the series of rooms devoted to our department of history is spacious, well-lighted, and much frequented. In consequence, it is admirably adapted to use as an exhibition hall. So here, upon the walls and in portable cases, the school has learned to expect frequent displays of historical material and it gives interested and serious attention to them.

We seek further to extend the educative influence of the museum by talks at the general assembly of our school, in which we exhibit and explain an article or a group of articles which show some phase of past life or illustrate some historical event. For example, one morning, with our wool cards, flax hatchel, flax wheel, cotton wheel, niddy-noddy, and swift, we were enabled to make plain the ancient processes of spinning, as they could not be understood in any other way.

Our students are encouraged and induced in various ways to use spare moments in visiting the museum and in studying its contents a few at a time. There is hardly an hour in the day when no one makes such a visit.

We try to extend the usefulness of the museum to the community outside of the schools. One way of accomplishing this is by making special exhibits on occasion. As we are writing these words, the Commercial Club of DeKalb is conducting a week-long bazaar, exhibiting the industries of the city. Our museum has made a considerable contribution to one of the booths—not of mere curiosities, but of educative material. Not long ago the missionary society of one of our churches was studying China and sought to vitalize its study by an extensive display of things Chinese. The backbone of the exhibit came from the Chinese department of our museum. We, also, frequently make use of some of our materials in addressing clubs and other local organizations.

But, you ask, where and how do you get your material?

First, as to the where. We always keep in mind the fact that as a normal school our specific function is to prepare teachers for the elementary schools. In these schools, the history is chiefly American. Consequently, the greater bulk of our material is American, and it comes from every part of the United States and from every period of our history. But we have very substantial contributions from every continent, except South America, and from many countries. Our Asiatic collection, particularly from China, Korea, and the Philippines, is rather notable.

Now, as to the how. First, we will answer negatively and say that we have acquired practically nothing

by purchase. Aside from the cost of the cases, which have been made by the school carpenter, who is a cabinet-maker, the total expense of the museum so far will not exceed ten dollars. Almost all of that has been for crating, expressage, etc. One of our purposes has been to show that a very considerable museum may be assembled with very slight cost, so demonstrating the possibility of every teacher obtaining at least a small collection.

The first objects in the museum were such articles as we personally had acquired from time to time and had kept stowed away for occasional use. They were so few in number as to necessitate wide distribution on the shelves in order to make any showing at all. But they formed a nucleus and attracted sufficient attention to interest friends who, by loan and by gift, have caused the collection to grow apace.

We have discovered that a good many people have articles of historical value, for which they cannot properly care, which they are glad to have kept safely and to have in use, but which, nevertheless, they are loath to part with absolutely. We are glad to accept such articles as a loan and so label them. We have the use of them as long as they are in our possession, just the same as if we owned them. We know full well that most of them will never be called for by their owners. In two years only one owner has reclaimed his loan and it consisted of two small articles of minor importance.

Of course, the greater number of our possessions are outright gifts. How do we obtain them? Chiefly by publicity. To make clear what we mean, we will be specific. We talk "museum" in season and out of season, whenever we can get anybody to listen to us. It is to be presumed we sometimes make ourselves a nuisance and occasionally we may be set down as a crank. But to be known as a crank is sometimes an asset. Anyhow we "get the goods." For example, a day or two ago we were telling a friend about the samples of foot-wear which we have. He said, "I have something for you along that line." So now we have a pair of Mexican teguas.

We manage to obtain frequent notice in the local newspapers. The editors have all become interested in our project. We take pains to apprise them of any notable acquisitions, of special exhibits, etc. They are very liberal in the use of their space. These mentions in the papers almost invariably bring results. Recently, the paper containing such a mention was hardly off the press before a telephone message conveyed a proffer of several articles of value and told of a considerable find obtainable elsewhere. We occasionally have published a suggestive list of articles specially desired.

We find that the showing of new acquisitions, before they are installed, to interested individuals makes a special impression and often leads to generous contributions of other material. We could give numerous instances.

In this city there are a number of collectors along special lines (coins, photographs of celebrities, etc.). In furthering their own particular interests, they often find material of historic worth in other directions.

They are interested in our museum and have obtained many valuable things for us. As an instance, a short time ago one of our coin collectors fell in with an ancient implement of tempered copper. It added nothing to the value of his stores, but, of course, it would be of distinct service to us. He freely added it to our possessions.

We continually single out individuals who are likely to have things we desire or whose business brings them in contact with those who have such things. We extend to them an individual invitation to visit the museum, setting some date agreeable to them, and personally conducting them through the rooms. In almost every case we have stirred up active interest in our enterprise. An instance in hand is the secretary of our Commercial Club, who is a most valiant enthusiast in our behalf.

In a similar manner an endeavor is made to interest groups of people. The DeKalb Woman's Club is soon to hold one of its meetings at the Normal School. A portion of the afternoon is designated for a visit to the museum. The ladies will be urged to avail themselves of the special opportunity. We will have a number of guides present to answer such questions as may arise. Judging by the experiences of the past, we confidently expect material additions to our collection by ladies who become interested by the inspection.

Another device for publicity, and so inducing contributions, is to make special displays in public places. Some of our stores are glad to attract attention to their show windows by such exhibitions. Not long ago we received direct from China one of the old dragon flags of the Manchu dynasty and a fine, large flag of the Republic of China. We placed them in one of these store windows, of course conspicuously labelled, "From the Normal Museum of History." All the newspapers of the city, with large headlines, called attention to the exhibit. As a result of all the publicity, we obtained a clew as to the whereabouts of the hospital flag which followed the Third Regiment of Illinois Volunteers from its mustering into the service of the United States, all through the Porto Rican campaign of the Spanish-American War, to its mustering out at the close of the war. This flag is now one of our proud possessions. Furthermore, the search for the flag led to the acquisition of a very considerable number of other Spanish-American War relics.

In like manner, on public occasions, we make displays appropriate to the occasion. As examples of such exhibits, we may instance the Illinois Country Life Conference, the Superintendents and Principals' Association of Northern Illinois, the old-time gathering of the DeKalb County Soil Improvement Association, etc.

The displays of special collections at the Normal School (described above), aside from serving their primary educative purpose, also interest students in searching out and bringing in other material. Our talks in our general sessions explaining the significance of historical objects and the use of such material in classes frequently leads to the same result.

Just before the holiday recess a year ago, we appealed to our students to show the Christmas spirit

toward the museum by searching the out-of-the-way cupboards, the attics, and the sheds at home and bringing back whatever they could find of worth. The result was surprising. To carry out the spirit of the affair we closed one of the rooms of the museum, got a Christmas tree, and arranged as many of the "presents" upon it as we could and put the others on tables near at hand. Then we opened the room and invited all to see how Santa Claus had come to the Museum of History. Faculty and students, to the last one, and many people from the community flocked to the museum for days. The result was another outpouring of gifts.

In making public addresses, at home or elsewhere, if it is not inappropriate, we do not hesitate to say a word about the museum and not infrequently directly invite those who can to aid in its upbuilding. Since our institution is a public one and the museum adds to its efficiency, we feel no diffidence whatever about making such appeals.

The fact that we place the donors' names on all articles and that the newspapers frequently mention them in connection with the gifts gives a sense of personal participation to many and induces them to aid still farther.

As is probably already inferred by the reader, the museum is fast becoming one of the "show places" of the school and of the community. This condition is desirable both because it increases the usefulness of the museum and also because it increases the number of its helpful friends.

In closing, it may not be amiss to recur to the pedagogical value of the whole enterprise. We have referred already to the stimulation of the imagination which comes through actual historical objects speaking to the mind directly, instead of through a medium. We have been impressed also by the fact that students gain a new insight into the historical value of things about them by the very process of helping to build up the museum. They are constantly testifying to this fact both by word and deed. We consider this result of prime importance, since our students, when they become teachers, are more likely to make collections for themselves and to use them.

When one employs an object to illustrate something in history, he *must* know exactly the nature of the object and what was its use. So he perforce learns much of the life of previous generations.

Occasionally persons bring in something which may be curious, but which has little or no historical value. In denying it a place in the museum, we always explain our reasons and thus have an opportunity to point out what is historical and what is not historical.

Finally, our purpose in writing at such length concerning the Museum of History has not been to magnify "our idea" nor to exploit "our achievements." We realize that what we have done others have done at least to some degree and anybody can do. But we are led to believe that our experiences may be of value to others. We invite criticisms and suggestions and shall be glad to answer such questions as anyone may be prompted to ask.

The Teaching of Greek History

VII. THE USE OF ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.¹

BY MAUD HAMILTON, OF THE WISCONSIN HIGH SCHOOL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

Alice, just before starting on her famous journey to Wonderland, was busily looking about for something wherewith to while away a tiresome summer day and presently espied a book which Sister had been reading. But on further investigation she gave it up in disgust. "For what is the use," said Alice, "of a book that has neither pictures nor conversations?"

Writers and editors of history text-books nowadays are recognizing the pedagogy at the bottom of Alice's lament and are more and more enlivening their pages with fairly numerous and well-chosen pictures, though they are still somewhat notably lacking in "conversations." But these pictures of the text-book are far from enough to satisfy the avid appetite of the average high school youngster. Furthermore, toward his text-book illustrations he has too often the indifference born of every day familiarity; then, too, their number and variety are in his eye disproportionately small when he views the vast and arid expanse of the reading content, and besides all this, a captious and exacting teacher is apt to demand an unknown amount of supplementary reading and here again it is the merest chance if he doesn't stumble on to the counterpart of Alice's book—with no pictures and no conversations at all. For all these deficiencies he must have some compensation. That elusive biped, known in pedagogical vernacular as "the average high school freshman" has been largely brought up on thrillers and has no mind to give them up now just because years of discretion have brought him to study a dignified subject such as Greek history.

And there you have in a nut-shell the animus of the present-day movement toward the visualization and dramatization of all subjects of instruction that lend themselves to such treatment. Pupils demand it as a part of the times in which they live. Teachers of Latin formerly drilled away on gerund, gerundive, and subjective mode. Now they send away for models of Caesar's hurling engines, togas such as Cicero wore when he addressed the *patres conscripti* and casts of the cup which Dido gave to Bitias "with a challenge." Teachers of history were once upon a time unafraid of topics hoary with age, lists of dates and "old forgotten, far off things and battles long ago." Now they must visualize, vitalize, and energize every period of man's past. Hence we have in increasing numbers historical laboratories, historical museums, models, dramatization of historic incidents and the more elaborate and pretentious historical pageants. Modifications and adaptations of all these means must be within the resources of the Greek his-

tory teacher. She it is who, according to the present schedule, has the initial chance to prevent a state of affairs graphically and somewhat unfairly described by a recent contributor to THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE as "that common distaste for history which ancient history gives because of its remoteness, foreignness, and its apparent lack of consequence."²

One is forced just here to suppress a very natural desire to challenge this summary conclusion with a counter-dictum equally arbitrary. The crowded conditions of our history classes do not bear witness to a "common distaste" for history. Every subject in the curriculum suffers this charge at the hands of its detractors. The charge, "remoteness and foreignness" of ancient history, is true in point of time only; in sympathies it is doubtful if there has been any people in the world's history so akin to the spirit and genius of our own age as were the Greeks of Athens. And as to "apparent lack of consequence" it is hard to see the truth of that statement regarding a civilization which saw the beginning as well as the noblest output of epic, lyric and dramatic poetry, of architecture and sculpture, of philosophic reasoning and of political experimentation and development. It is hard to suppress this natural desire to challenge the entire assertion, nevertheless it may be profitable to accept this conclusion as valid and proceed at once to see how teachers of Greek history may best remove this stigma of alleged unpopularity.

Some preliminary investigation of just what is expected of the Greek history class ought certainly to clear the atmosphere for an understanding of the most effective means to be employed in the attainment of results. What is the raw material? What is to be the output? The class consists, ideally, of from fifteen to twenty-five pupils; the time given seldom exceeds more than four months and is often much less. At the end of the given time ninety per cent. of the given class should measure up to the following ideal standards: (1) They should have experienced delight in history instead of feeling that "common distaste" for it. (2) They should have acquired some historical insight and independent historical judgment. (3) They should have gained a modicum of definite and ineffaceable knowledge of the great movements among the people known as Hellenes. (4) They should have a bowing acquaintance, at least, with the immortals of Greece, so that they may feel social ease in the presence of Homer, Pindar, Solon, Pericles, Aeschylus, Phidias, Miltiades, Aristophanes, Socrates, Alexander, and others of that "glorious host." It would be a distressing social *faux pas* if a supposed student

¹ EDITOR'S NOTE.—For illustrative material see THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, I, 119; II, 32, 177, 181, 185, 205; III, 8; IV, 130, 158, 168.

² C. A. Sprague's article in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for October, 1913.

of Greek history should congratulate Homer on his unforgettable victory at Marathon, or Solon on his imperishable work in architecture—and yet the counterpart of such blunders is not entirely unknown. (5) They should know the direct and more remote contributions of the Greeks to world civilization and understand what waters flowed from this fountain head of all civilized and intellectual life. (6) To descend from the ideal to the painfully real, the class should be so trained that a small percentage of the chosen may be able to march up and pass through the gate of college entrance examination.

Considering the limitations of her raw material in the class and time at her disposal there is presented to the conscientious teacher rather a large problem for her solution. The text-book, the supplementary reading and all other features that constitute "the historical laboratory" are the means at hand. Experts are constantly at work in perfecting the first two of these. Our present mission is to inquire into the composition and utilization, and the effective manipulation of the third.

I.—THE HISTORICAL LABORATORY.

In almost any high school the idealist and enthusiast who is supposed to be in charge of the history classes will "find a way" to create the much-desired historical atmosphere that is so silent and efficient a help in accomplishing her work. Boards of education and other school authorities who hold the purse strings are coming slowly to realize the value of expenditure for the history laboratory as well as for the chemical and physical laboratory. As test tubes, retorts, and Bunsen burners feature the one, so maps, charts, and pictures should feature the other. We are said to be still far behind France, Germany, and England in our estimate of the value of illustrative material and in our willingness to expend money for the same. Nevertheless, interest can be aroused and in almost any community some of the essential features of an ideal history room can be evolved. Good working desks where the pupils can draw maps, work out the interpretation of pictures or solve some of the problems offered by source material, directly under the teacher's eye, are a first desideratum. Materials and tools for drawing, colored crayons, and suitable paper for map work, paste pots and brushes, scissors, heavy card board, assorted pieces of wood, manila paper, are some of the homely but useful articles in the history workshop. Maps, charts, pictures, pieces of statuary, models are to be acquired according to the means at command. The writer's student course in elementary algebra involved the working of quadratic equations by rules one, two, three, or failing all these, by the never-failing rule four—"the exercise of a little ingenuity." In the case of the smaller school or limited means rule four "the exercise of a little ingenuity"—is still the teacher's surest hope. If her lines have fallen in more ample places and an entire room is devoted to ancient history work there are in almost unlimited number, art productions that suggest the subtle and pervasive spirit of Greek art and life. "A

Reading from Homer," "Reproduction of the Parthenon Friezes," views of the Acropolis, bust of Pericles, Sophocles, and Homer, contribute to the attractiveness and spirit of the room and are of distinct historical value as well. A large burlap board for exhibition purposes is an inexpensive essential. A good lantern, plus a projectoscope for the use of post-cards and chance pictures is certainly most desirable. The educational value of the lantern exhibit is perhaps not equal to that of pictures and models, but it adds a large and vital element to the interest and enjoyment of a class. It should be borne in mind that, while to entertain or to give "desultory information" is a legitimate purpose in the use of illustrative material, it is always decidedly a secondary one, and the fundamental purposes are: (1) to add definite and concrete knowledge to the pupil's store of historical information; (2) to awaken that lively historical curiosity which stimulates to independent reading and study without the imminent goad of the teacher's injunctions or the whip and spur of the periodical report card sent home to trouble some parents. All illustrative material and equipment for the history rooms should be evaluated on this basis and acquired in the sequence suggested by these ends.

II.—MAPS.

It is a commonplace that no one can understand the peculiar development of Greek life unless he has a clear conception of the country. From the days of the war of Troy to the final struggle by which Rome absorbed those small but spirited Greek states, practically every step was conditioned and influenced by mountain, sky, and sea that formed the physical setting for the drama of Greek development. Absolutely no day's lesson, therefore, in Greek history should be carried through without some use of some map. There should be no divorce between the local habitations and the names whereby we follow the course of the Hellenic story. Furthermore, if one adheres faithfully to this principle, there is a good fighting chance that a majority of the class will close the term's work with some definite geographical and historical idea of Troy, Athens, Sparta, Thebes, Ionic Greece and its important cities, Sicily, Syracuse, Magna Graecia, the Mediterranean and Black Sea colonies, Carthage, the Persian Empire, Macedonia, Alexander's Conquest, and the empires carved from its wide extending territory. Even then minor places, as is possibly desirable and certainly inevitable, will be forgotten, though there is no reason why they should not be located when under discussion. Excellent wall maps are the Kiepert series on the Ancient World, Ancient Greece, Empires of the Persians and of Alexander the Great, and Ancient Asia Minor. Good also are the Kampen maps of Ancient Greece, and the Schwabe and Baldamus maps to be used in the more detailed study of the City of Athens. A physical relief map is also contributory, such as the Relief-Model Map of Europe, A. L. Series. Rand-McNally & Co. and A. J. Nystrom & Co., both of Chicago, are dealers of these indispensable maps.

Many schools are equipped with one or more good wall maps, but have failed to take the additional step of securing a blackboard outline of the Ancient World. The Johnson map of this character, published by A. J. Nystrom & Co., preferably in what is known as the "Imperial" size is an invaluable aid in securing accuracy, in showing territorial change and development, in tracing trade routes and, in general, in affording countless opportunities for members of the class to do individual geographical work with a background of unchanging precision and correctness.

The wall maps should be supplemented and reinforced by such atlases as those of Shepherd and of Dow, the cross indices of which save the time the pupil would otherwise waste in wandering over the field of the larger wall maps. Map drawing, one of the most important tasks of the history class, will give best results if saved from monotony by wise variations while keeping to the main theme. Sometimes the McKinley outline maps are best, either in their original form or distinguished and embellished by colored crayons. Very often freehand maps are essential. Map drills in class for rapid exercise in location are both useful and enlivening; map contests where everybody produces his most attractive and accurate work for the prize of exhibiting on the bulletin board, are excellent now and then. Maps in red and black ink are especially adapted to such lessons as the March of the Ten Thousand or Alexander's Conquest of Asia or the trade routes out of Alexandria. A series of three or four progressive maps is good to show the growth of the Confederacy of Delos, the formation of the Athenian Empire, the loss of Athenian power during the Peloponnesian War, or to show the extent of the Aetolian and Achaean Leagues.

An extremely valuable adjunct of the map work is the relief modelling which may be done very successfully at times in sand, papier maché, or clay obtained from the manual training room. It is a simple and economical device to secure a shallow sand pan—possibly through the coöperation of the manual arts department—and let the pupils work out for themselves in a way they are likely never to forget such lessons as the configuration of the coastlines of Greece and Asia Minor and its effect on the history of the Ancient World, or the location with reference to the sea of the many cities that played out their life history with the Mediterranean or the Aegean basin as their stage. The writer once found a group of boys and girls vividly interested in the story of the Trojan War through this plan of relief map work. There is no question of its value, though work in modelling is necessarily slow and the teacher must always consider the equitable division of her time. This may be left as volunteer work for those members of the class who seem to find a special pleasure and profit in hand labor. It may be used effectively in many cases, such as the history of the Persian wars, where the physical aspects of the Ionic coast, Mount Athos, Thermopylae, Marathon, and Salamis, bore such direct effect upon that momentous conflict in which the spirit of Western progressiveness triumphed over the decadent forces

of Eastern civilization. It is with the help of the map and relief work, too, that one may still further remove that "remoteness" of Ancient Greece by instituting geographical comparisons such as this: "Greece and your own home state. Compare as to size, mountains, rivers, soils, climate, ease of accessibility, advantages and disadvantages as a place of residence, ease of transportation, if one eliminates modern methods of steam and electricity." These are lessons in which one proceeds on the well-known but neglected pedagogical principle of working safely from the known to the unknown.

III.—PICTURES.

THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for June, 1913, assembled so long and complete a list of companies publishing inexpensive pictures, lantern slides, and stereographic views, that to repeat them here would be to carry coal to Newcastle. From the reputable firms therein mentioned it is possible to procure either directly or through a local dealer, almost anything desired for pictures instruction, from a penny blue-print such as those issued by Thompson Bros., of Syracuse, N. Y., to the pretentious moving picture films scarcely within the financial reach of any but the most ambitious high school. As to the use made of pictures, that again is, or should be, largely an empirical matter with the individual teacher. What she adapts to her own needs and to the peculiar conditions of her class is ten times more valuable than the formal use of something which another has pronounced good. But if one has done little or none of this illustrative work with pictures, there are a number of effective plans worthy of trial:

(1) The teacher may post on the burlap board the McKinley prints which coördinate with the work of the text and the supplementary reading: For example, the chapter on the greatness of Athens may be accompanied by the print "The Acropolis—To-day and Yesterday"; the lesson of Alexander and his conquests by the views of Alexander and of the Greek and Persian warriors; the lesson on Hellenistic art by views of the Apollo Belvedere; the Laocöon, and the Venus of Melos; all obtainable in this one series of prints.³

(2) It is an easy matter again to start a "Hall of Fame" in one corner of the burlap board, with the printed heading "Men Who Made Greece Glorious," and post copies obtained from the University Prints or Perry pictures, of the men deemed by the class worthy of a place therein. A careful explanation to the effect that the making of portrait busts did not begin before 400 B.C., and that those representations which we have prior to that time are idealized, should be made to the class. So far as the historical value of the exercise is concerned, it makes but little difference whether Homer and Pericles "sat" for their pictures or were so important that many years after their death men were moved to immortalize them in marble. Even the moot Homeric question need not trouble the high

³ "Illustrated Topics for Ancient History," edited by D. C. Knowlton, published by McKinley Publishing Co.

school mind. The chief value in this, of course, is the discussion that must occur in the class before any picture goes up. "What constitutes greatness? Has Demosthenes a right to rank with Socrates and Plato? What did Phidias contribute to the 'Glory that was Greece'? Would a man of the vacillating nature of Alcibiades really be entitled to enter such a company?" The class will develop a lively interest and no little historic judgment of men under this stimulus.

(3) Again, each pupil may be induced to send twenty-five cents to Caproni Bros., Boston, Mass., for one of their catalogues, and with scissors, paste-pot and brush, be guided in making his own note-book on Greek art, Greek architecture, and Greek drama. There is distinct value in the individual note-book, where a very brief notation of the important data regarding any subject is accompanied by the pictures that serve to bring that subject out of the nebulous land of the encyclopedia and the history text-book into the concrete and actual home of the boy's mind.

(4) Greek mythology is at best a complicated subject. Yet the class must be familiarized with the hierarchy of Greek divinities, and must grasp the Greek conception that their gods were only men and women magnified, beautified, and gifted with supernatural powers. The ideas which the Greeks themselves entertained of their deities, as expressed by their artists, is for us the all-important matter. Some knowledge, then, of the gods is essential because they played so large a part in the Greek art, life and literature. The University prints offer an excellent series of views of the gods. My class recently had an enjoyable hour studying and discussing them. Twelve members of the class were assigned each one divinity whom he presented following the lines of Guerber's *Myths* or Harper's Dictionary, and then illustrated by pictures taken from the University prints collection. This entire set of prints can be acquired at a comparatively small outlay from the Bureau of University Travel in Boston.

(5) More expensive views, but admirably adapted for illustrating both art and architecture of the Greeks, are the Elson prints, obtainable for ten cents each from the Elson Co., Boston. Greek architecture, indeed, suggests a number of illustrative devices to the ingenious teacher. In many places there are one or more local examples to be studied in the column façades of libraries, schools, or public buildings, and this local study may be amplified by a postcard exhibit of famous buildings throughout the United States which employ, in more or less pure or modified form, the three characteristic Greek columns. The love of competition, which is innate in the high school age, led my class recently into an enthusiastic contest in architectural drawing, showing the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian pillars and capitals. It mattered not that the prize offered was only the honorary one of permitting the three best out of a class of thirty to exhibit their work on the bulletin for the admiration of the school. All these plans for teaching the subject of Greek architecture cost practically nothing beyond the time, patience, and enthusiasm for the work which

seem to be an essential for the teaching of every subject in Greek history.

(6) More expensive, but perhaps best of all, are the admirable Underwood & Underwood stereographic views of Greece as arranged for their Travel Tours. The entire set of one hundred views is listed at \$19.95, and this includes a stereoscope and a most carefully compiled book, with excellent maps. Furthermore, the Underwood people print on the back of each picture an epitome of the essential historical data regarding it. This puts a vast amount of concrete and definite information into a most available form, and furnishes the basis for careful and exact work. With these views in hand the pupil may wander up and down Greece from Sparta to Thermopylae, and may review, as he goes, the history that sheds over all the land an immortal charm.

(7) If more money is available the Cyburski charts, twelve of which present Greek subjects, are most desirable. Their cost is \$1.25 each. Their bright attractiveness, and their absolute reliability, historically, make them one of the most valuable assets in the teacher's entire collection of illustrative material. The Langl pictures and the Lohmeyer views may be used to supplement the Cyburski series. Less reliable, perhaps, but nevertheless, to be commended, are the pictures gathered from all miscellaneous sources, which, uniformly mounted and preserved should form an ever growing collection of available illustration. Views, from such periodicals as the *National Geographic Magazine*, are always worthy of a collector's attention as they are sure to be attractive and true, and the mounted pictures are, of course, in more usable shape than the magazine itself.

(8) As to the lantern slides, the names of publishers from whom they may now be obtained is legion. The cost is usually from 35 cents to 40 cents per plate, and they cover almost every known subject of Greek history. Loan exhibits are now arranged by a number of universities, museums, and state departments of education, where the departments of visual instruction are coming into recognition. The extent of the use of these views should be determined by the money available, plus a careful consideration of the proper division of one's time. Like holidays, lantern-slide days should come, but they should not come so often as to make Greek history seem more play than work. The result that comes from the use of the lantern is certainly valuable, though somewhat intangible and difficult to follow up. A wise method of controlling the lantern exhibit is to make it a sort of special treat, to be enjoyed after holidays when no lesson is prepared, or as a reward of merit after a hard piece of work is finished; or at the close of a certain subject to give a more lasting impression of the whole. For example, at the close of the study of Oriental history, which usually forms a brief prelude to the study of Greece proper, it is extremely helpful to show a series of views illustrating the Egyptian, the Assyro-Babylonian and the Cretan or Mycenaean civilizations, all of which certainly transmitted more or less of their art and life as a foundation for the more splendid structure which

Greece was to raise. The whole subject of Greek art forms a fruitful theme for a lantern exhibit. A class is usually deeply interested in views of the Greek theatre, especially when pictures from ancient Athens or Epidaurus can be shown, together with views picturing the modern presentations of the classic dramas. The brilliant pen of Miss Agnes Repplier recently indulged in some gentle sarcasm on the use of films as an educational agency.⁴ Nevertheless they serve an end by no means despicable in the Greek history class and we venture to predict they have come to stay. Their value may be enhanced by careful instructions to the class before the exhibit, as to what they should look for, and by a written test after the exhibit as to what they saw. Results are not always just what an optimistic teacher might expect, but at least some degree of the desired reaction on the part of the class is secured.

(9) The interpretation of text pictures is a most fruitful exercise which is by no means utilized as it should be. Two pictures were recently used in my class in an attempt to drive home the lessons on Greek art. The somewhat archaic "Man Carrying a Calf" (of about 525 B.C.) was contrasted with the Praxitelean masterpiece of Hermes, which the world is so fortunate as to possess in the original. The class readily enough expressed the differences seen in the artificial appearance of the hair in the older statue, and its natural treatment in the other, the stiff pose of the head and hands, reminiscent of Egyptian influences in the first, with the beauty, gracefulness, and living appearance so remarkable in the Hermes. Comparison with the recent statuary obtainable in the prints would complete two lessons: (1) that the Greek artistic genius improved on its own models, therefore, was of high creative type; and, second, that the world in general has never improved on the Greek masterpieces in marble. One such lesson with the actual picture is worth probably ten written descriptions of the excellencies of Greek sculpture.

Pictures lose much of their value unless they can be accompanied by provocative questions or by suggestions which call into play the pupil's powers. The vase painting (from Westerman's "Story of the Ancient Nations," p. 200), showing Greek furniture and Greek dress, may be effectively used in company with a Roman view of the same character, or with a group showing mediaeval dress, or, better still, with a sheet cut from last month's *Vogue*. "What articles of furniture are in this scene?" "What materials are used?" "What workmanship is displayed?" "How is the work done?" "By what class of people?" "With what other peoples, say in the fifth century, did Greece buy and sell?" "What were the means of transportation?" "Do the articles of furniture suggest comfort and convenience of life?" "Enumerate articles of dress and ornamentation for both women and men." "Compare the styles with modern styles."

Every lesson must, of course, present some task that will secure activity on the part of the pupils. To secure

response and quicken initiative in the individual member of the class, are the two great commandments to the history teacher, and the other eight are like unto these. The besetting sin of history teachers is to give out information instead of getting out the results of whatever mental effort the individual pupil may have been induced to make. Browning's definition of knowledge needs to be constantly laid to heart by the zealous and often perplexed worker with history students: "to know rather consists in opening up a way whence the imprisoned splendor may escape, than in effecting entry for light supposed to be without."

IV.—MODELS.

The problem of obtaining models to be used in the history class is necessarily a more difficult one than confronts us in the matter of pictures, because of the greater expense involved. The Hensell Modellen, from Stechert & Co., N. Y., afford perhaps the best collection in this country. The firm of A. Pichlers,



VASE PAINTING.

From Westermann's "Story of the Ancient Nations," (Appleton's) p. 200.

Witve & Sohn, 35-37 Königstrasse, Leipzig, furnish good and cheap models. Classes are always interested and derive some value from these ready-made models of catapults, ballista, and other instruments of Greek warfare, in the model of a Greek house, in the Chiton, the Himation, and Chlamys, the Homeric war chariot, and so forth. But better than these, because they require activity again on the part of the class, are the home-made articles which can be turned out by the exercise of a little time, patience, a very little outlay of money, and some coöperation on the part of the departments of manual training and the household arts. Members of my present Greek history class have furnished a very creditable home-made spear, shield, and helmet such as the ancient Greek warriors bore and wore. It is hoped that this class at least will never be guilty of the anachronism accredited to one high school student of describing the battle of Salamis as attended all day long by the rattle and roar of musketry and the booming of cannon. Our next class will attempt to furnish suitable dress for a Greek lady of Aspasia's dignity, and an equipment for Pericles in time of peace and war. A model of a

⁴ See article, "Popular Education," Miss Agnes Repplier, "Atlantic Monthly," January, 1914.

Greek house and its furniture is also contemplated for some future class. The accumulated efforts of the various classes will find their permanent home in the historical museum of the school.

V.—MISCELLANEOUS.

The history teacher must not despise the day of small things, nor be unwilling to try exercising her ingenuity, because some one she regards as an authority has not yet hit upon a plan and pronounced it good. "She brought down Greece from Olympus and made it dwell in the high school" may be a very bad paraphrase of the classic expression "he brought down philosophy from heaven and made it dwell among men." Nevertheless it expresses what should be the high school teacher's aim. There are many ways by which this may be realized and one can tell only by experience which way may be best.

If a moving picture show that affords some historical interest comes to town, by all means members of the history class must see it. If the town or some nearby place affords a museum, they must visit it. If a loan exhibit is offered by some enterprising art association, they must attend it. If the Sunday newspaper redeems some of its atrocities by chance reference to something Grecian and classical, they must seize it. When the subject of Greek games comes up, the teacher should take advantage of the fact that every high school boy knows something of a modern track meet. Application to the board of athletics in almost any high school, college or university, will secure a number of programs of last year's events. With this as a model, a boy can make out a program of events at the Olympic meet of many hundred years ago, and can note, not only what events we still have, but also the horse races, the dramatic contests, and the reading of poems which do not occur in our contests. Furthermore, with the help of the vase paintings, and illustrative books such as Gardiner's, the boys can actually decide on the form used in running, jumping, and other sports and can compare these with modern form. With a little outside reading to help along he can review the modern revival of the ancient games. It often happens that fall classes are studying about the Greek games, just when the school is seething with football spirit. It is hardly pushing the term "illustrative material" to say that the very spirit of the day should be seized and utilized to institute comparisons as to the spirit that animated the ancients, the method of training, the rewards of prowess, public enthusiasm, the semi-religious character of the games, and their national import.

In conclusion, it seems hardly too much to say that in all of this there is some danger that the means employed in visual instruction may only succeed in producing a pleasant titillation of the eye without rousing to any vigorous action the cells of gray matter, popularly supposed to be lying back of the eye. Brain stimulus through hand and eye activity is the justification for every device employed. It all fails unless it

evokes activity on the part of the pupil. From pushing in his own thumb tacks when he exhibits, to modeling the Piraeus or the Long Walls of Athens, or to building a Greek house, the pupil must look up his own authorities, and do his own work; and it must have the character of real work. When a man wishes to develop his muscle by the use of an axe, he prefers a pine knot to a lump of putty as his *piece de resistance*. There is considerable danger that history may be made too easy in the high school and may not afford a real pine knot to hew at. There is very little danger that it may be made too hard. Whatever the day's assignment may be it must be a task and must arouse that spirit of initiative and of invincible activity which made the ancient Greek athlete the supreme representative of his type.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, JUNE, 1913, gives a very full and complete list of firms which furnish illustrative material. In the above article special mention has been made of the following:

1. Maps.

Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago.
A. J. Nystrom & Co., Chicago.

Complete catalogue will be sent by either firm upon application.

2. Models.

G. E. Stechert & Co., 151 West Twenty-fifth Street, New York City.
A. Pichlers, Witve und Sohn, 35-37 Königstrasse, Leipzig.

3. Pictures.

Perry Pictures Co., Malden, Mass.
Thompson Bros., Syracuse, N. Y.
University Prints, Bureau of University Travel, Boston, Mass.
Elson Prints, Elson Art Publishing Co., 2a Park Street, Boston, Mass.
Cybulski Charts, published by Friedrich Andreas Perthes, Aktiengesellschaft in Gotha.
Underwood & Underwood, 12 West Seventh Street, New York City.

Under the catchy title "Hay and History" ("Political Science Quarterly," September), Vladimir G. Simkhovitch presents the results of an investigation into the origin of the village community. His conclusion—unfamiliar, but not entirely new,—is that the village was the result of a demand for equitable distribution. "Equitable distribution meant access to a share in the meadow, meant a division of fields into strips that went through good and bad, dry and wet soils, with rights of pasturage, as mast and firewood, etc.,—meant, in short, a village community."

History in the High School Curriculum

A PLEA FOR FAIR PLAY¹

BY ST. GEORGE L. SIOUSSAT, PH.D., PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY.

For many years the problem which has been absorbing the attention of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States has been an extensive problem. We have been trying to separate the work of colleges and of the schools, and at the same time to correlate the two stages of education correctly. Stimulated by the Carnegie Institution, the General Education Board and other kindred influences, by the standards set by the stronger colleges, and by the efforts of this association, the colleges and universities generally have been raising their standards as rapidly as possible, far more rapidly than some would once have admitted to be possible. Parallel with this, and sometimes going ahead of it, the schools, especially the public schools, have expanded their work, with the addition of more years to the school course and of more weeks to the school year.

With the adoption of fourteen units, which a curious development has led to be popularly known as "Carnegie" units, something like a uniform quantity of school work is being demanded by Southern colleges for entrance; while from the standpoint of schools, the four-year high school has been accepted as a not unattainable ideal. For the United States, as a whole, very interesting data are to be derived from Bulletin No. 7, for 1913, of the United States Bureau of Education, which promises to be the standard reference for the matters which it covers. It is here shown that in 203 colleges of liberal arts, none of which demand less than 14 units for unconditioned entrance, there is a range of demand for such unconditioned entrance of from 14 to 17½ units; and the average is 14.8 units. The standard set by our Southern Association is then .8 units lower than the average for the 203 best colleges of liberal arts in the country as a whole.²

It should be to all of us, whether we are of school or college faculties, a matter of rejoicing,—as it is doubtless a matter of comfort,—that something like the goal of this expanding, extensive process is thus in sight. But we are not permitted to rest in complacency from our labors, for other problems insistently demand attention. There is first the question of the prescriptive or the elective character of our 14 units. For a statement of this problem, one cannot do better than refer to the trenchant presentation of the case by Dr. K. C.

Babcock, of the Bureau of Education, in the address which he delivered last year before this body on "College Standards as Affected by the Diffusion of the Entrance Credits." In this paper Dr. Babcock presented certain very informing statistics, taken presumably from the compilation of Mr. Kingsley, later issued as Bulletin No. 7. Let me cite from this Kingsley Bulletin the figures in regard to the 203 colleges of liberal arts. In these the number of prescribed units for entrance ranges from 17½ to zero, and the average is 10.7, while the number of units specifically stated to be elective ranges from zero to 16, and averages 4.1.³

For Dr. Babcock's paper see Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for the Southern States, Proceedings of the Eighteenth Annual Meeting, pp. 47-55. Of especial significance is the following as to the admission of vocational subjects by the colleges of liberal arts, of engineering, and of agriculture, taken together: "The number of colleges accepting more than 5 units of vocational subjects is nineteen, ten accept 5 units, six accept 6 or 6½ units, one 7; twenty announce their willingness to accept 4 units of shop, eleven 4 units of business, twelve 4 units of agriculture, nineteen 4 units of household economy. Probably these figures represent a group of about twenty institutions. Out of these three hundred and twenty institutions, approximately eighty-five will accept for admission units in the four subjects just mentioned, sixty-two will accept music, and fifty-four will accept astronomy as a science.

But we must distinctly remember—what we are often prone to forget—that these units, whether prescriptive or elective, are not units in general, but units of *something*,—of Greek, Latin, English, etc.—and we have to face the question of the *worth* of the work done in these subjects. Units have become a kind of currency, a multiple standard currency, a legal tender, in the educational world. One may say without danger of contradiction that there is a good deal of depreciated paper in circulation: that many units are offered based on courses of insufficient extent, which have been taught by methods that are very unsatisfactory and by persons entirely unequipped. Now, so long as every college was a law unto itself, perhaps it could be held that it was not the function of this Association to consider the content of school work. In the old system of Uniform Entrance Examinations issued under

¹ A paper read before the Nineteenth Annual Meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, at Knoxville, Tennessee.

² United States Bureau of Education No. 7, 1913. "College Entrance Requirements," compiled by Clarence D. Kingsley, table 1, p. 28. In table 3, p. 73, the range of entrance for the 85 colleges of engineering of similar grade is shown to be from 14 to 16, and the average 14.7. In table 5, p. 89, the range of entrance for the 31 colleges of agriculture of similar grade is shown to be from 14 to 15, and the average is again 14.7.

³ (Table 1, p. 28.) In the colleges of engineering the variation of prescribed units is from 14 to 1½, averaging 10.1, and the number of elective units range from zero to 13½, averaging 4.6 (table 3, p. 73). In the colleges of agriculture the range is, for prescribed units, from 11 to zero, averaging 8.1, and for elective units, from 3 to 15, averaging 6.6 (table 5, p. 89).

the authority of this Association each institution graded for itself the papers which it received,—if it received any. There were common examinations available; but there was no common judgment on the results. But we have passed that stage now. In establishing a commission on accredited schools, this Association has undertaken to require certain standards of work in the schools accredited; and it must attempt to retire the depreciated paper in favor of sound money. In this problem the immediate workers are, of course, those in charge of the schools, and especially the authorities of the public schools. Reinforcing these are the state systems of inspection, and the activities of the state universities. But the matter can be approached from another angle, that of those interested in the particular *subjects* of the curriculum. Thus the requirements in English and the requirements in Latin and the requirements in modern languages have been unified and stated by the various associations representing the special students of those subjects. As this process continues, as it undoubtedly must continue, it will be very interesting and very profitable to examine *through the individual subject*, such as English and Latin and the modern languages, the working out of the problems of administration to which we have referred above. For it will be units in English or Latin or some other definite subject which colleges require for entrance and which schools offer; it will be units in English or Latin or some other definite subject which must be certified, and in all schools and in all subjects there will be need constantly to consider the *quality* of the work done.

To the situation of one subject, then, I invite your attention on this occasion. A survey of the average college catalogue reveals that history is a subject accepted for entrance, and one expects to find it represented in every school curriculum. As to the *degrees* of acceptability of history for entrance to college Mr. Kingsley has provided us with more definite information. Of the two hundred and three colleges of liberal arts to which we have already made reference, no college refuses to accept at least 1 unit of history; six fix 1 unit as the maximum to be accepted, and two fix $1\frac{1}{2}$. Only twelve apparently accept more than 5 units. Consequently the great majority of colleges will accept from 2 to 5 units; and within this range the number of colleges is well distributed. With regard to the amount *prescribed* by colleges for entrance, the facts are very interesting. Forty colleges do not require *any* history for entrance. Of the remaining one hundred and sixty-three, one requires $\frac{1}{2}$ unit;⁴ one hundred and thirty require 1 unit; five require $1\frac{1}{2}$ units; twenty-seven require 2 units. *None* requires more than 2 units. For the sake of comparison, let it be noted that of units in English only twenty colleges prescribe so little as 2 units or less, while one hundred and seventy-six prescribe 3 units. The average requirement for history is 1 unit; for English, 2.9. It is obvious, then, that there is a far wider range in the history requirement

than in the English requirement. In history the larger number of colleges prescribe 1 or at most 2 units; while as many as 5 are acceptable.⁵

But what does a requirement of one unit really mean? Of the one hundred and thirty colleges which prescribe 1 unit, one hundred and two allow a choice of several history courses, while twenty-eight⁶ are insistent on particular courses, as follows:

- 12 specify ancient history.
- 5 specify United States history and civics.
- 2 specify European history.
- 1 specifies general history.
- 2 require that Roman history ($\frac{1}{2}$) be included.
- 1 requires that ancient history ($\frac{1}{2}$) be included.
- 1 requires that Roman history ($\frac{1}{2}$) be included, and also Greek history ($\frac{1}{2}$), if Greek is offered.
- 1 requires ancient history and English history, or United States history and civics.
- 1 requires both ancient and modern history, counting as 1 unit.
- 1 requires any two of a number of history subjects, but counts each as only $\frac{1}{2}$ unit.⁷

Of the five colleges that prescribe $1\frac{1}{2}$ units,—

- 3 allow choice of several history subjects.
- 1 specifies ancient history and United States history and civics.
- 1 requires that United States history and civics be included.

Of the twenty-seven⁸ colleges that prescribe 2 units, 11 allow choice of several history subjects.

- 5 specify ancient history and United States history and civics.
- 1 requires ancient history 1, and mediaeval and modern combined 1.
- 2 specify ancient, English and United States history and civics.
- 1 specifies ancient, English, Biblical and United States history and civics.
- 3 require that ancient history be included.
- 1 requires ancient history, which it evaluates at 2 units, or English and United States history and civics.
- 1 requires United States history and civics and either ancient or English history.
- 1 requires that English history, evaluated at $\frac{1}{2}$ unit, be included.⁹

Bryce says of the Emperor Charles IV that he "legalized anarchy and called it a constitution." Somewhat the same impression, it must be confessed, is derived from these figures. It would seem a reasonable deduction that if the amount and the division of history to be offered may so widely and easily vary, the subject is not one of much importance.

⁴ Kingsley, table 1, p. 28. For the facts as to the colleges of engineering and the colleges of agriculture see tables 3 (p. 73) and 5 (p. 79).

⁵ There is apparently an error of 1 in the addition. The Bulletin has been followed exactly.

⁷ Princeton University.

⁸ There is again apparently an error of 1.

⁹ Kingsley, op. cit. pp. 26-27.

⁴ Bates College enjoys this distinction, insisting on Roman history counted as $\frac{1}{2}$ unit.

Yet contrary to this is the rapid expansion of the subject in the school curricula in the last few years, and, in many parts of the country, the considerable improvement in the methods of teaching. It is not due to the neglect of the college men that conditions are as they are, for a succession of committee reports of various bodies, culminating in the Reports of the Committee of Seven and the Committee of Five of the American Historical Association have repeatedly urged that after being taught in nearly every year of the primary grades, history should be taught in every year of the high school. A course of study has been laid out on this principle,—the familiar plan that includes ancient history in the first year, mediaeval and modern history in the second year, English history in the third, and American history and civics in the fourth, a modification of which, by the substitution of two years of European history with some emphasis on English history for the second and third years, is now coming into vogue.

Where this plan is actually put into practice it is possible to arrange a definite progression in the work, somewhat like that of the student who passes from arithmetic to algebra and plane and solid geometry, or from first Latin lessons through Caesar to Vergil and Cicero. When the scheme is faithfully carried out one would not find in the same class those who had two or three years of prior work, and those who had never before looked into a history book. But unfortunately the pressure of other subjects,—especially the demands of the vocational subjects in many schools,—spoils utterly the scheme which has been laid down; and history is made elective, or at least the student is allowed to elect from any of the three or four that are offered the one course that may be required. The result, of course, is a *levelling down*. The course must not be too hard for those,—doubtless the majority of the class,—who are just taking up the subject. I believe that it is not an unreasonable supposition that the student may present three or four units of history, who has in each of the three or four years represented done much the same kind of work. How contrary this is to the expectations of the Committee of Seven, or to the justice of the case, I need hardly point out. Instead of meeting opposition, this tendency is encouraged by the entrance requirements of the one hundred and thirty colleges which prescribe one unit, but accept *any* history unit. As a result, where any one unit may be offered for examination, the college may and frequently does set the same paper for the student who has had one year in history and for the student who has had three. In the East indeed if the college is an old one and has for some time been rigid in its demand for a particular branch of history the schools may learn what to expect and prepare accordingly. But will not the same school possibly have to teach, in the last year, all four history subjects, in order to meet the demands of different colleges?

If entrance is by certificate the situation may be little better. In the examination system, the tests for entrance come all at one time or at most (where the examination is divided) spread over not more than a

year, and the student at least has to show what he can do when he wants to enter. But the certificate covers the entire course, and the college has no direct test of its own. Where the student has had a good three or four years' course this is of little consequence, but when colleges have to accept upon certificate three or more units that represent no advance in the work of the student, those in charge of the college classes in history would far rather adapt the work of their freshman classes to the needs of those who have had the discipline of progress to more and more difficult work in some other subject. It is a constant source of disappointment to base one's first college course on a supposition that the students are prepared for it by 3 units of school history only to find that these units are bogus units, and the student innocent of any discipline in history.

The most convincing proof of the unsatisfactory condition of the teaching of history in the United States is derived from a study of the results of the examinations set by the College Entrance Examination Board. In 1913 the percentage of candidates in all subjects who have obtained a grade of more than 60 is stated to be 54.8, i. e., somewhat over half the candidates in all subjects make a grade of over 60. In contrast with this, in 1913, of 1,862 candidates who were examined in history, only 38.1 per cent. have attained a grade of 60 or over.¹⁰ Let it be noted, furthermore, that this is the lowest of all percentages. In no other subject were the results so bad. Finally, it must be observed that this is no new phenomenon, for a similar condition has existed for several years.

This is not the popular idea of history. Doubtless there are many who would smile at the idea that history could be as hard as mathematics or Latin. But unfortunately, the explanation of this difference of opinion as to the subject is more certainly due to the fact that we are not awake to the appreciation of modern methods in history than to any peculiarity in the history examinations of the College Entrance Examination Board. The explanation which naturally pops into our minds to account for such a high death-rate in these examinations is that some young doctor of philosophy is airing his knowledge and is trying his graduate methods on the unfortunate high school boy. But if ever examinations were carefully guarded to avoid just this thing, these of the Entrance Examination Board have been. It would not do to enter into details here and now. Those who care to pursue the subject will find a most interesting symposium thereon in the November number of *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*.

If these conditions prevail in the east and west, from which sections the vast majority of students come who take the entrance examinations, to which we have just referred, it is certain that no better conditions exist in the south. Fourteen years ago my honored predecessor in the chair of history at Vanderbilt, Dr. Frederick W. Moore, wrote:

¹⁰ Report of Secretary Fiske, of the College Entrance Examination Board, cited in *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*, Vol. 4, pp. 256ff.

"The history classes are too often given to the teacher who happens to have the least other work, regardless of his proficiency in the subject."

It is to be feared that in general this statement requires little modification to-day. There are indeed signs of improvement, especially in the high schools of our larger cities.¹¹ But those who have to read the papers in our freshman history classes will agree with me, I think, in attributing to the high school teacher, rather than to the student, the sorry results obtained from those who are supposed to have had one, two, or three years of work in history.

These, then, are some of the difficulties under which history labors, in the morass of "election" in high schools, of "diffusion" in college entrance requirements, and of poor instruction.

But enough of lamentation. What can we do to improve the situation? In bringing my paper to a close, I venture to suggest not vague generalizations, but propositions of some degree of definiteness, in the hope that those who hear me, even if they be not interested as specialists in the subject of history, may yet, as authorities interested in the relation of educational subjects one to the other and in the structure of the curriculum as a whole, think over present conditions and resolve to assist in bettering them.

1. We should begin at the bottom and at the top. Every improvement in the history work of the grade schools gives the high school teacher that much better chance. On the other hand, the larger development of history and the social sciences in the curricula of our colleges and universities in the South, should lead to an increasing army of those who will demand higher standards from the schools. To every true student of history, research comes first, but we should not allow our labors of investigation or our interest in our college teaching to make us indifferent to the work of the schools.

2. There should be provided by some national commission a definitely, easily understood statement of the requirements in history, comparable to those now provided for English and for several other branches. This should include not only books to be read, but a clear description of the methods to be pursued. Such a standardization would represent only a minimum, and would not be inelastic. The fear which I have heard expressed in high places, that such a plan would kill interest in history in the schools, seems to me to be unjustified. Certainly the burden of proof should lie on those who argue that this uniformity could bring worse results than the present chaos.

3. As some time may elapse before the last suggestion can be made effective, the statements of requirements in history contained in the catalogues of our colleges can be made much more full and helpful to the student and to the school. A study of the cata-

logues of several of our leading institutions shows much neglect on this point. As illustrative of what may be done by way of beginning, let me ask you to read over the essential paragraphs of the Harvard entrance requirements as to history, which are the best that have come within my notice, and also the Vanderbilt statement, which is based upon the principles to which expression has been given in this paper.¹²

4. This suggestion is closely related to the last. To meet some of the difficulties to which reference was made in the early part of my paper, I suggest that there be two standards of units in history, elementary and advanced. This scheme is already in practice in a few institutions, but, so far as I am aware, in only a very few. Where a student offers more than one unit, the second or third unit must represent a higher *grade* of work. Thus, if a student offered elementary ancient history, an additional unit in American history must be based on a different kind of work in American history from that which would be expected of one who presented American history only as an elementary subject. It would be difficult for a single institution to adopt such a plan as this, but it should receive the attention of our associations. One result of such a practice might be the necessity of providing two kinds of freshman courses in college.

5. The work in our summer schools and normal schools should be made more effective for the high school teacher, without in any way neglecting the interests of the graded school teacher. In advanced courses in history, in courses in methods of teaching history, through conferences on vexed questions theoretical and practical, through the establishment of history exhibits, much can be done to interest high school teachers, many of whom now seem to be quite content with things as they are.

6. History should be allowed a fair share of equipment. The new history cannot be taught from the text-book alone, no matter how great the improvement in text-books may have been. No progressive school denies material to the teachers of physics and chemistry; but few schools make an adequate expenditure for the simplest part of the historical laboratory,—the library. Nearly every modern text-book lists the books which should be found in the school library; but how many schools adopt the suggestion? But books are not all. Illustrative materials, pictures and models, ample wall maps, stereopticons or projection apparatus,—these should be given to the history teacher as freely as microscopes to the biology classes.¹³

7. It is now evident that admission to college in our Southern institutions is to be by certificate rather than by examination. Therefore a tremendous power for

¹¹ In 1902, in a report to this Association, Dr. Moore said that neither private nor public schools gave fitting attention to history, though the former professed to give the subject a larger place in the curriculum. The generalization would probably now be inexact, and it seems that history is given more time and is better taught in the larger public high schools, than in the private schools.

¹² Among smaller colleges, Meredith College, N. C., has an especially commendable statement of the requirements in history.

¹³ As to existing needs in southern schools, with reference merely to library facilities, reference is made to a paper by the present writer in "Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Twenty-third Annual Meeting of the Southern Educational Association, 1912," pp. 400-408.

good or ill is vested in the bodies that control the granting of certificates. It should be the duties of State inspectors of schools to make themselves familiar with the ideas which are held concerning the teaching of history by the specialist in historical science. It is possible for the State inspectors, as it is possible for no one else, to bring these ideas before the teachers, and to insist that teachers shall avail themselves of the helps which now abound in such richness. It will be their part to raise the demands upon the preparation of the teachers, to see that the history classes are no longer "given to the teacher who happens to have the least other work, regardless of his proficiency in the subject." Above all will this burden rest upon our newly-created Commission on Accredited Schools. With a wider outlook than that of a single separate state, with an outlook national in its scope, they will strive to establish the best. In no field will they have more to do than in this one of history.

Let me conclude with the remark that all this argument is based upon one assumption,—that history is a subject worth teaching. To argue this would be an interesting and delightful task; but such an attempt must await another time and place. If history is not worth teaching; if it is not worth teaching well; if it is not worth teaching just as well as any subject is taught, let us be honest about it. Let us not keep it in our curriculum. Let us cease to have any "units" in history. In the work of the high school and in college entrance requirements there should be no place for shams.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

The annual spring meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association will be held in Boston on Saturday, April 25. The morning session will be held in the Lecture Hall of the Museum of Fine Arts. The subject for the morning session will be "The Purpose in History Teaching," and the discussion will be opened by Dr. David Snedden, Massachusetts Commissioner of Education. Luncheon will be served at the Hotel Carleton.

The twenty-second annual meeting of the American Jewish Historical Society was held in Philadelphia on Sunday and Monday, February 22 and 23. The meetings were held in the Dropsie College for Hebrew and Cognate Learning.

Among the speakers were Dr. Cyrus Adler, of Philadelphia; Samuel Oppenheim, of New York; the Rev. Dr. David Philipson, of Cincinnati; Professor Alexander Marx, of New York; Sigmund Seeligmann, of Amsterdam, Holland, and Rabbi Abraham A. Neuiman, of Philadelphia.

Among the January publications of the Harvard University Press the following will be of interest to history teachers:

"The History of the Grain Trade in France, 1400-1710," by Abbott Payson Usher, Instructor in Economics in Cornell University, Harvard Economic Studies, Vol. IX.

"Year Books of Richard II: 12 Richard II, A.D. 1388-1389." Edited for the Ames Foundation by George F. Deiser, Librarian of the Hirst Free Law Library, Philadelphia.

"Burgage Tenure in Mediaeval England," by Morley de Wolf Hemmeon, sometime Austin Teaching Fellow in Harvard University. Harvard Historical Studies, Vol. XX.

Professor MacDonald, of Brown University, is giving a course of ten lectures in the Technical High School Building, Fall River, on "Some Aspects of Colonial Society." These lectures are in the nature of a University Extension Course.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The annual meeting of the History Teachers' Association of the Middle States and Maryland will be held at Trenton and Princeton on Friday and Saturday, May 1 and 2. The general topics for discussion will be "Local History" and "Military History." Two sessions will be devoted to local history; one to consider the place of local history in the school curriculum, and successful methods employed to make such history of real pedagogic value; and the other to treat of the importance of research in local history, especially for the worker in industrial, economic and religious history. Military history will be treated from the standpoint of its value or worthlessness in the school and college curriculum. The meetings on Friday in Trenton will be held at the State Normal School and at one of the city hotels; on Saturday at Princeton the sessions will be at Graduate College and on the Princeton battlefield, over which the company will be conducted by Professor William M. Sloane.

INDIANA ASSOCIATION.

The History Section of the Indiana State Teachers' Association met at the Claypool Hotel, Indianapolis, on Friday and Saturday, February 13 and 14. The program included the papers on the following topics: "Present-Day Problems in the Teaching of Civics," by Harry W. Wood, of Indianapolis; "Revision of the Course of Study in History," by Oscar H. Williams, of Indiana University; "Should Indiana Have a New Constitution?" by Professor Thomas F. Moran, Purdue University; "Relation of Local History to General United States History," by Professor Harlow Lindley, Earlham College; "Recent Currency Legislation," by Professor James A. Woodburn, Indiana University; "Correlation of History with Vocational Training," by John A. Lapp. There were reports of committees and suggestions for the holding of an Indiana Centennial Celebration.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

At the last meeting of the South Dakota History Teachers' Association Miss Clara Vieving, of the Sioux Falls High School, gave a talk on the points of a good text-book, and Professor R. G. Wellington, of the State University, read a paper on the purpose and value of the note-book to the high school student. Miss Stallman read a paper on history in the grades and Miss Anna M. Emerson, of the Sioux Falls High School, gave an illustration of the practicability and use of a postcard projector in the teaching of history. President Sparks gave an inspiring address on some helps in history teaching. Professor Christophelsmeier, of the State University, was reelected president, and Mr. Edwin Ott, of the Sioux Falls High School, was elected secretary.

TENNESSEE ASSOCIATION.

A meeting of the Tennessee History Teachers' Association was held Thursday, January 15, in the rooms of the Tennessee Historical Society, with many visitors from other parts of the State in addition to the local teachers of history. After introductory remarks by Dean James D. Hoskins, of the University of Tennessee, president of the association, addresses were made by Professor Carter Alexander,

of the George Leabody College for Teachers, on "History from the Standpoint of the High School Principal"; Mr. William R. Bourne, State inspector of high schools, on "Present Conditions in the Teaching of History in Tennessee," and by Professor St. George L. Sioussat, of Vanderbilt University, on the conference of history teachers at the Charleston meeting of the American Historical Association. An active discussion followed in which the following participated: Miss Lizzie L. Bloomstein, Miss Annie C. Allison, Professor J. H. Bayet, Professor E. P. Moses, Superintendent Wharton L. Jones.

Another meeting of the association will be held in April in connection with the meeting of the Middle Tennessee Teachers' Association.

AMERICAN STATISTICAL ASSOCIATION.

The American Statistical Association celebrated its seventy-fifth anniversary in Boston during the second week of February. At the session on Saturday, February 14, Professor C. H. Hull read a paper on the historic aspects of statistics; and their relation to economics was described by David Kinley; to sociology by F. M. Giddings, and to biology by Raymond Pearl. Walter F. Wilcox spoke on "Coöperation between Academic and Official Statistics."

Papers read in the afternoon included "Economic and Social Progress of the United States During Seventy-five Years," by Frederick L. Hoffman, and "The Present Status of Statistical Work and How It Needs to be Developed in the Service." This last was considered under these heads: "Of the Federal Government," by W. S. Rossiter; "Of States," by Adna F. Weber; "Of the Municipalities," by F. Spencer Baldwin, and "Of Private Societies and Organizations," by W. S. Gifford.

ENGLISH HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION:

At the eighth annual meeting of the Council, held on January 8, 1914, the secretary's report showed an active membership of over one thousand and an associate membership of over two hundred. The number of branches has increased to fifteen.

The Publications Committee is at work on a series of reproductions of documents for use in class. The first to be issued will be *Magna Charta*.

The Illustrations Committee is making a collection of historical lantern slides which may be lent to teachers. In this collection is included the gift from Prof. J. L. Myres of one hundred and fifty slides, illustrating the Waterloo campaign.

A movement is on foot to secure a greater coöperation from the women's colleges in various universities towards a simplification of the requirements in history. No agreement with regard to syllabuses is, however, possible until the Association's view is accepted that a scholarship or entrance examination should be designed to test the student's general knowledge and conception of history rather than capacity for cramming the details of a narrow period.

NEW YORK CITY CONFERENCE.

The New York Conference of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland held its annual meeting on Saturday morning, January 17, 1914, at the Washington Irving High School.

Despite the stormy weather, there was an excellent attendance and much interest in the subject of the day's discussion, which was: "High School History from the Point of View of the Elementary School Teacher," and "Elementary School History from the Point of View of the High School Teacher."

The chairman of the conference, Dr. Arthur M. Wolfson, of the Julia Richman High School, in his opening address spoke of the futility of the many educational panaceas offered at the various conventions, and the over emphasis laid on curricula, time schedules, and methods of teaching. He maintained that better conditions could be only brought about through the coöperation of all teachers, and he urged a closer relationship between the high school and the elementary school, that the latter broaden and vitalize its work and that the high school apply and interpret the knowledge learned in the elementary schools.

After reports of the meetings at Albany and Charleston had been given by Prof. Edgar Dawson and Dr. Helen L. Young, of the Normal College, New York City, the subject before the conference was presented by Miss Louise K. Greene, of the Hillside Grammar School, Montclair, N. J.

Miss Greene, in a very interesting and stimulating manner showed the chasm that too frequently existed between the elementary and higher schools. She spoke of the deadening effect some high school teaching had upon the fresh enthusiasm of the first- and second-year classes and of the small number who elected history in high school courses.

Among various reasons suggested, she mentioned a lack of knowledge of psychology and pedagogy in high school teachers, the use of too difficult methods in class work as the attempt to use college research systems with immature children, and the entire absence of any coöperation between the grammar and high school grades. The demand for facts and facts only by the high school had, she thought, reacted disadvantageously upon the work of the elementary schools and she urged upon the high schools a more sympathetic interest in the history teaching in the grammar school years.

Mr. Ernest D. Lewis, of the High School of Commerce, presented the high school position. He believed the high school had the right to demand a certain knowledge of history and geography from the elementary schools and suggested broader work in the grammar grades. He commended the use of sources, the appeal to the historical imagination through dramatization, departmental teaching, more courses in European history as aids in producing better results from the elementary schools.

The discussion that followed was opened by Miss Katherine F. Belcher, of the Barringer High School, Newark, N. J. She said the high school teacher would naturally expect some content of information and the ability to read, write and spell as the primary product. She felt the elementary schools were sometimes too ambitious and in their efforts to interest and stimulate pupils neglected fundamentals and obtained vague results.

Mr. I. E. Goldwasser, principal of Public School 62, Manhattan, in defense of the elementary schools contested these views, and asserted the work of the grammar teacher was to develop the child's imagination, make him realize the meaning of the world around him and to teach facts only as they revealed life.

An interesting discussion followed. Among the speakers were Mr. Paine, Prof. Dawson and Mr. Bryan.

The Executive Committee for 1914-15 was chosen, and is: Mr. Samuel B. Howe, Jr., South Side High School, Newark, N. J., chairman; Miss Florence E. Stryker, State Normal School, Montclair, N. J., secretary-treasurer; Miss Louise T. Hedge, the Training School for Teachers, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Dr. Arthur M. Wolfson, the Julia Richman High School, New York City; Miss Clara Brynes, Normal College, New York City; Mr. A. C. Bryan, High School of Commerce, New York City; Miss Constance Warren, the Brearley School, New York City.

Proceedings of the History Section of the California Teachers' Association.

Oakland, Cal., December 31, 1913.

The meeting was called to order by the president, Miss M. F. Stevens, of Palo Alto. A Committee on Nominations, consisting of W. J. Cooper, T. P. Martin, and Nicholas Ricciardi, was appointed; and the reading of papers was begun in the order indicated by the printed program. The general topic for discussion was: "The Significance of the Present Vocational Tendency in Education for the Teaching of History." "How Far Ought We to Modify Our Present Program and Methods in History to Meet This Tendency in Education?"

The first paper was a discussion of "Citizenship through Civics," by Alden H. Abbott, of San José. It was not, as the title indicates, ostensibly a discussion of the main topic as proposed in the program; but the position of the speaker is made clear in the first sentence, "Good citizenship is the aim of all education." Civics especially is concerned with the development of good citizens, and the subject is essentially practical in content and method. In order to feel properly his responsibility and make the best use of his opportunity, the teacher of civics must, first of all, be a good citizen, conscientious in the payment of taxes and ready to help in civic affairs.

The new tendencies in education have made themselves evident by the changes rapidly taking place in the teaching of civics. In former years the instruction given was primarily a minute analysis of the federal constitution and a theoretical study of the machinery of the national government. Not much attention was given to the actual management of local affairs. The recent movements resulting in the adoption of the referendum and recall and in the working out of new systems of city and county administration, however, have made it necessary to devote considerable time to the study of these subjects. And it is felt that in general civics teaching should give the pupils four things: namely, (1) an accurate theoretical knowledge of the general principles of the federal government; (2) the power and habit of close, thoughtful observation; (3) practice in governmental processes, and (4), the most important of all, civic consciousness.

Mr. Abbott believes that knowledge on the theoretical side should be confined chiefly to the interpretation of the main features of the Constitution; and that the emphasis should rest more on state and local government, because local affairs are closer to the average citizen's every-day life. Since the demand for this kind of instruction has greatly increased, he feels that more time should be given for it in the school curriculum. In his opinion one and one-half years would not be too much for American history and civics combined.

The remainder of the discussion is chiefly concerned with the method of training the student in observation and practice. Present-day society is an excellent laboratory, and the laboratory method has proven to be the most effective. The consistent study of current events, the examination of postal administration, visits to Sacramento, the county court house, penal institutions, the city hall and council, accounts of a visit to Washington, and addresses by a Senator, Representative, or other person closely connected with the government are among the means suggested. Opportunities for actual practice in governmental affairs present themselves in the course of ordinary school life. With a little direction the pupils can hold elections, debates, and organize a student legislature. By such means they will become actively interested in the affairs of government.

Throughout the study, however, it is highly important to emphasize patriotism as the highest civic virtue; but this patriotism should be of a loyal and discriminating kind, international and above partisanship.

The next speaker, Mr. T. M. Marshall, of Alameda, dealt with the question, "Are Present Tendencies in History Teaching in the High School Based upon Sound Principles?" Concerning present tendencies as he understands them, Mr. Marshall has this to say: "They are changes of content and changes of emphasis. Under the former, there has been an increase of economic and social history at the expense of the political, and the introduction of courses in local history. Under change of emphasis the stress has been shifted from the Oriental and Greek to the Roman Empire; in European history from the Middle Ages to the period since 1815; in English history from before 1485 to the nineteenth century; in American history to the period since the Civil War at the expense of colonial history."

The determination of whether these tendencies are sound is postulated upon the aim of history teaching, and this in turn upon the aim of education, for the teaching of history is but a small part of the general scheme. The explanation of the aim of education is to be found in society; for the child must be so trained that he may adjust himself to social institutions—the church, the state, the family, the school, and the business world. History deals primarily with man's attempts at readjustment in society religiously, politically, economically, intellectually; and

"It is our business to teach the youth concerning those great movements which have taken place when the world at large, or a considerable part of mankind, became cognizant of an idea and attempted to put that idea into actuality."

Mr. Marshall's paper will be printed in THE MAGAZINE in the near future.

In view of what had been said by those who had preceded him Mr. J. R. Sutton, of Oakland, did not see fit to read the formal paper which he had prepared on "What Utility Value Has History?" He pointed out the fact that only for a small per cent. of the people—lawyers, preachers, playwrights, or statesmen—does history have an economic, or wealth-producing utility value. To the great mass of laboring men and women its value is chiefly cultural, or non-economic. For them it interprets modern as well as ancient life and helps them to become good citizens. History also aids indirectly in the solution of problems that arise in connection with work; for the problems of the present are but the problems of the past cast in modern moulds.

Mr. Sutton then proceeded to consider the relation of history and history teaching to the economic welfare of the common people. In the past too much time has been taken up with the history of political and military affairs which gives little help in the solution of economic and industrial problems. "These problems are daily becoming more complicated and more pressing, and our people are entitled to all the help that history has to contribute toward their solution. It is therefore the duty of history teachers to see to it that the economic side of history is interpreted to some extent. How to do this is not a problem of the shifting of emphasis, but rather of the proper division of emphasis, a policy which many history teachers have been following for a good many years. This was but natural, for political questions, almost without exception, grow out of economic conditions. Concerning vocational and utilitarian tendencies, they but emphasize the necessity of the change already begun by history teachers, and are to be regarded as effects of the same cause, the conviction that our schools are not sufficiently preparing young people to grapple with the problems of life.

"Thus I believe that the vocational and utilitarian tendency . . . should have very little influence on our work as history teachers. That tendency is only one phase in education. It is a useful phase, but no more useful than many other phases. Besides no one knows whither the tendency is leading. Many people are certain to be disappointed in the outcome. For example many fully expect that the time is not far distant when our secondary schools will become in large measure trade schools. I for one hope that that time will never come, for I believe that our schools have a higher mission than to turn out workmen in the various crafts and trades.

"It would therefore be very foolish for those of us who represent other phases of work in education to begin at this time to make any radical change in either the content or the method of our work with a view to bringing it into harmony with a tendency that has not yet found itself, and is not able to tell us whither it is leading. It is better that we should develop our system of pedagogy from within, with a view to giving all possible help in the interpretation of modern economic life as well as political life through the lessons that come down to us from the past."

Thus, Mr. Sutton believes, it would be of incalculable value if capital and labor could respectively learn that greed and oppression react upon themselves to their own undoing, and that a wrong cannot be permanently righted by the perpetration of other wrongs. Both should learn that a partisan, class, or sectional spirit hinders rather than aids in the removal of complicated domestic ills. The proper study of history will also broaden the sympathies of men by continually demonstrating that in human controversies all of the right is not on one side and all of the wrong on the other. It is, therefore, the teacher's duty to present to his pupils the lessons and warnings which abound in history.

Miss Elsie Wood, who was to have read a paper on "Current Topics in American History," being absent, the body proceeded to the election of officers. The Committee on Nominations presented the names of J. R. Sutton, of Oakland; T. M. Marshall, of Alameda, and Miss Grace Kretzinger, of Berkeley, for the offices of president, vice-president and secretary respectively. Their election was unanimous. The meeting, having no further business, immediately adjourned.

TOM P. MARTIN, Acting Secretary,
2606 Bancroft Way, Berkeley, Cal.

COMMUNICATION.

Editor HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

As a Daughter of the American Revolution and a descendant of the people who settled the Massachusetts Bay Colony with Governor Winthrop, I object to reading in my paper such statements as "later and more important immigration" found in "A Strange Visitor at School" in the February number of THE MAGAZINE. As I have had much experience in the West and South, I have long thought that it would be better if our school histories paid more attention to these sections without, however, neglecting New England and the Atlantic, Middle and Southern States. I do object strenuously to the statement quoted. My ancestors helped make this country. We have yet to see whether the Goths and Vandals and Huns pouring into New England, particularly, will ruin it.

I would not mention these things if it were not for the fact that I feel the time has come for those who own the country to assert themselves. As Henry Cabot Lodge said in speaking of the immigration bill which President Taft unfortunately vetoed, Americans are the only people who are not supposed to own their own country. S.

BOOK REVIEWS

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UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

FISHER, HERBERT. Napoleon. New York, Henry Holt & Co. Pp. 256. 50 cts. net.

To write a first-rate biography of Napoleon is not an easy task and one might well look askance at one of 247 short pages. But the author of this one has the gift of clear and lucid statement and analysis of underlying causes and conditions. Without attempting anything especially original, Mr. Fisher has written a very useful and interesting resumé of the essential facts of the great Corsican's life. For the general reader the book will prove very acceptable as an introduction to more intensive reading. The older high school students will find it equally useful, but it is to be feared that the author's style is a little difficult for the ordinary immature pupils.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

HERMAN GERLACH JAMES. Principles of Prussian Administration. New York, Macmillan. 1913. Pp. xiv, 309.

The author is adjunct professor of government in the University of Texas, and has evidently written for the student or scholar rather than for the "general reader." He says, "The whole purpose of this modest work [is] to give to our students, our scholars, our legislators, and all other persons interested in our public affairs a general insight into the internal administration of a state which has been developing its present system through a period of hundreds of years, a system which has served as model for nearly all other states in the German Empire" (ix), and he might well add could serve as the model for some states nearer us to their advantage. The author has not attempted to criticise, draw contrasts, or philosophise; but merely to set forth and describe. He uses the word "administration" in his title in its narrow sense only of "internal administration," and in so doing excludes from his discussion the departments of Foreign Affairs, War, and Justice (4,69). His eight chapters present an historical survey of internal administration in Prussia, its relation to imperial administration, its organs, the forms and legal effects of its action, the protection of the individual from its oppression, the law which binds its officers, the police power, and the positive measures for the promotion of individual welfare.

The book is well written, pleasant to read, presents the result of careful and painstaking study, its citations inspire confidence though they do not lead the young student to a convenient body of other literature on the subject. In the word it is probably about what the doctor's dissertation should be, but seldom is. EDGAR DAWSON.

TILBY, A. WYATT. The American Colonies. In the English People Overseas Series. 1583-1763. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co. Pp. 302. \$1.50.

Mr. Tilby has undertaken in his English People Overseas Series an ambitious task. That the public have appreciated his work is proven by the publication of this second edition which is now issued. He declares that it is his purpose that no English settlement overseas shall be left unnoticed and that as far as possible the actors in the drama shall tell the story in their own words. To live up to this standard he has necessarily to make very brief mention of some of them, but he works faithfully through the long list of considerable colonies in America and freely characterizes each.

Beginning with a general survey of the development of the English nation and government and her relations with the continent, the author speedily takes up the period of exploration and adventure to the settlement of Virginia. One would look far to find a general survey of this period so interestingly and discriminatingly written as is this account.

He then takes up each colony in connection with the movement, religious, political or economic with which it was connected. In his discussion of the Puritan movement there is exhibited a curious mixture of admiration for strong qualities and disgust for weak ones that makes the reader feel that the author has not arrived at definite conclusions concerning it himself. However that may be, he sets down characteristics in an interesting and fair-minded way. From our present-day conceptions of American social conditions it is startling to read, "Puritanism, indeed, might claim to be the unofficial creed of America, so profoundly has it influenced the life of the republic." He intimates that it is due to it that America holds such high standards of social morality, while, at the same time, it degenerates into the prudery that clothes piano legs rather than disclose their nakedness. We are filled with conscious pride at the mention of the first and with amusement in contemplation of the last.

The book abounds in clever characterizations and in exceedingly interesting and suggestive quotations, Mr. Tilby remaining true to his promise that the actors in the drama should be allowed to tell the story in their own words as far as possible. The book is of real value as a work of reference for high schools where general surveys of early colonial affairs from the English point of view are desired and is a most excellent book for the general reader.

CARL E. PRAY.

MOORE, J. R. H. *An Industrial History of the American People*. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. xiii-495. \$1.25. Accompanied by a Teachers Manual, pp. 32.

This book is not really an industrial history, consisting, as it does, of a series of topical chapters discussing various industrial subjects. It fails to give a proper conception of development, and the chapters do not cover properly the whole field of American industrial life, omitting in some cases fundamental problems. Those subjects which are treated, however, are presented in a lively and plausible manner, stripped of many of their complications, and should be intelligible to high-school students. It seems that the book would thus serve usefully for supplementary outside reading. The topics best treated are Commerce and Currency, the Colonial Labor Problem, the Fur Trade, and special branches of agriculture, such as tobacco and cotton.

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

TOWER, CHARLES. *Germany of To-Day*. New York: Henry Holt and Company. London: William and Norgate, 1913. Pp. 256. 50c. net.

In this small volume the author has given us a very valuable and interesting account of modern Germany in its various aspects. The first half of the book is devoted to the government and its activities, and so all important is the State in Germany that this seems to be a fair apportionment of space. Preceded by a historical resumé, there are chapters dealing with the various legislative bodies and political parties in them; the executive departments and the administration including the police and local officials; such functions of empire as the armed forces, social insurance, the colonies, and the means of paying for these; and municipal government. Then follow descriptive chapters

dealing with a variety of subjects such as education, industrial organization, agriculture, and social and intellectual life. Of course the treatment of all these subjects is inevitably brief, but the author has grasped the essentials and the book will prove very useful to the general reader. Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

ADAMS, EPHRAIM D. *The Power of Ideals in American History*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1913. Pp. 160. \$1.15.

Of the published lectures on the responsibilities of citizenship delivered to the students of Yale University under the terms of the Dodge Foundation for citizenship, this is the first to be reviewed in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, and teachers of American History and Civil Government may well scan carefully the list of nine books which report the other lectures of this series. The *summum bonum* of the study of these subjects in our schools is the inculcation of high ideals of citizenship, and there are many among these lectures which will stiffen the teacher's purpose and assist him in his determination to make his teaching count for good.

The ideals which Professor Adams declares have been of the greatest influence in our history are nationality, anti-slavery, manifest destiny, religion and democracy, and his book is a good corrective for the excess of emphasis on economic and geographic interpretation of history. He asserts that the "economic man" is fiction, and scouts with Seward the idea that "trade is the cement of this Union." A quotation from one of his chapters—that on anti-slavery—may suffice to suggest the flavor of them all. Affirming that it is not true that the absence of favoring industrial conditions in New England created the anti-slavery ideal there, he declares, "That ideal was, rather, an intellectual and spiritual conception—the result of a thousand years, it may be, of the slow development of human thought and of a thought always laboring under the necessity of differentiating good from evil. The ideals of personal liberty and of humanity were not created by 'the boulder-strewn soil' of New England. They already existed there, and when directed to the question of slavery, won a victory in men's minds over the economic interest of the community." In support of this and similar claims he presents a goodly array of testimony and evidence which will carry conviction to many. Not only will teachers find these chapters suggestive and stimulating, but high school pupils also can use with profit some portions of the book.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

MACAULAY, LORD. *The History of England from the Accession of James the Second*. Edited by Charles Harding Firth. Vol. I. London: Macmillan & Co., 1913. Pp. xxxvi+516. \$3.25.

The purpose of the publishers in issuing this sumptuous edition of six large volumes is not to point out and correct errors and bias of the famous author, though the accessibility of new sources for the period makes this both possible and desirable, but to supply the lack of a finely illustrated edition of this historical classic. For the many who know the beautifully illustrated edition of Green's *Short History of the English People*, it may almost suffice as a description to say that this edition of Macaulay is to be uniform with that. In this first volume there are one hundred and eighty-three illustrations, most of them full page in size, and all of them of superior excellence. These pictures fall into various categories. First in importance are the portraits of kings, statesmen and minor

personages. The frontispiece is a photogravure of the author from a daguerreotype taken about 1855, and nine others of the portraits are full-page plates in color. These are an especial joy and give a vivid sense of the living and actual reality of the people portrayed. Many of these likenesses are derived from the National Portrait Gallery, of which Macaulay was one of the thirteen original trustees. Maps and plans also have a place among the illustrations, as do views of localities and buildings, reproductions of medals, broadsides, ballads and autograph letters. Of Macaulay's narrative the volume contains the first four chapters.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

THE CAMBRIDGE MEDIEVAL HISTORY. Planned by J. B. Bury. Edited by H. M. Gwatkin and J. P. Whitney. Volume II. *The Rise of the Saracens and the Foundation of the Western Empire.* New York: The Macmillan Co. 1913. Pp. xxiv, 891. \$5.00

The second volume of "The Cambridge Medieval History" more than carries out the promise of the first.¹ It covers a period from the accession of Justinian to the death of Charles the Great. There are twenty-two chapters: five devoted to the Franks; four to the Eastern Empire; three to Mahomet and the Saracens; two to Italy; two to Heathenism and Conversion of the Kelts and Gauls; one each to Spain, England, the Slavs, Roman Law, Feudalism, and the Papacy. But this summary is only partially correct, as the same subjects are sometimes treated in two different chapters and from different standpoints. An excellent index makes it easy to trace out the discussions of the various events, and the different points of view are rather an advantage than otherwise, as they bring out divergent opinions. This is especially advantageous, as few notes are given, and the reader is usually expected to accept the statements on the *ipse dixit* of the author. There seems, however, to be a slight improvement in this respect, as some notes on disputed points, or giving credit where credit is due, are furnished by over half the contributors. Of these there are twenty-one, of whom almost half are foreigners. We owe a debt of gratitude to the editors for their breadth of view which caused them to entrust the chapters on Justinian to Diehl, on Spain to Altamira, on the Merovingians to Pfister, on the Saracens to Becker, on Italy to Hartmann, on Charles the Great to Seeliger, on Keltic Heathenism in Gaul to Julian, on the Carolingian Revolution to Burr, and on the Slavs to Peisker. The last named has written the most novel and one of the most interesting chapters in this volume, although not so novel and interesting as his chapter on the "Asiatic Background" in Volume I. He is the only one of the authors who gives special attention to geographical influences. Fortunately there are thirteen maps, which atone, to some extent, for the lack of attention to geography, a lack which is especially noticeable in the chapter on Mahomet and Islam.

Of the sections by English authors, the chapters on "The Origin of Feudalism," by Vinogradoff, and on "Gregory the Great," by Hutton, are especially noteworthy, partly because of the intrinsic interest of their subjects, but also because of their knowledge not only of the facts but also of how to present them. The chapters on "Roman Law," by Roby, and on "Mahomet," by Bevan, inevitably suggest comparison with Gibbon's famous chapters; the later writers are far more accurate, but the average reader will still turn to Gibbon. Limitations of space make it impossible even to mention other contributions.

In a review for this MAGAZINE, the important question is, how far will this book be of use to teachers and pupils?

Most of the volume is useless for supplementary reading in the schools; but Hutton's section on Gregory the Great and parts of Peisker's chapter are noteworthy exceptions. All conscientious teachers of medieval history will, however, want to have access to this volume in some library, and will be able to draw from it much of profit for their pupils. They will also find it more readable, on the whole, than the Cambridge Modern History, or the preceding volume of this work. Unfortunately, they will get little assistance from the lengthy unannotated lists of titles of books, which fill over one hundred pages, and are intended only for the specialist.

The University of Wisconsin.

DANA C. MUNRO.

SCOTT, M. R. *Supposed Diary of President Lincoln.* Newark, O.: F. J. Heer Printing Co., 1913. Pp. 140. \$1.00.

A chronological record of the great events which must have impressed Lincoln, or in which he took part, between 1854 and his death. To a considerable extent his own words are used. The author has clung closely to fact, and not attempted to impose any imaginative interpretation upon the reader, as might be suspected from the title. The one exception is a somewhat too great insistence on dreams. There is always a certain life in the chronological method which is lost in topical grouping, and it is heightened by the diary form. I believe that the book would be interesting to many students of high school age.

The University of Wisconsin.

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

RAY, P. ORMAN. *An introduction to Political Parties and Practical Politics.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1913. Pp. 493. \$1.50.

In a clear, forceful style the author has presented an outline dealing with present-day national parties, nominating methods, campaigns and elections, and the party in power—these constituting the headings of the four parts into which the book is divided. It is intended to serve as a text-book and designed "as an introduction to the study of political parties and practical politics" and as such it deals with every phase of the subject, and though necessarily brief a very good list of references is appended to each chapter together with suggestive questions and topics. A very full index adds much to the usefulness of the book.

While not a philosophical work or containing anything new in content, there is no doubt that the student—for whom it is intended—will get much information concerning present political parties and their methods; but occasionally a question may be raised concerning the accuracy of statement of facts and the correctness of impression left upon the reader. For example, President Taft is credited (p. 31) with forcing upon the party the idea "that party pledges mean something and are to be taken seriously," but no mention is made of the fact that after Congress failed to revise the tariff downward and carry out the party pledges, Taft apologized for the party failure to live up to its pledges.

In his discussion of the recall of judicial decisions (Ch. XVII) which he evidently favors, he is hardly just to the opponents of the recall in making the alleged objections largely a matter of judicial independence, and also in assuming that judges should, in constitutional questions, decide upon the merits of the law. This is not their function and the opponents of the recall do not believe that the function of judges should be changed. Moreover the meaning of the recall of judicial decisions as explained by the author is much more moderate than were Mr. Roosevelt's original utterances upon the subject and more moderate than the popular conception at the present time.

Oberlin College.

KARL F. GEISER.

¹ See HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE for June, 1912.

McMASTER, JOHN BACH. *A History of the People of the United States, from the Revolution to the Civil War.* Vol. VIII. 1853-1861. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1913. Pp. 556. \$2.50.

The completion of Professor McMaster's great work, the initial volume of which was issued thirty years ago, was the most notable event in American historical writing of the year 1913. Though not without their faults, those eight thick volumes comprise the best account by a single hand of the history and development of the American people during the first eighty years of our national life. Professor McMaster has adhered faithfully to the promise in his first pages, for while by no means neglecting military, political and diplomatic history, his chief theme has been the life of the people. This point of view is no longer novel, since there has been for many years now an ever increasing group of younger writers who devote themselves to "social history," but thirty years ago, if not new in America it was almost untried. Though the chief value of the work lies in this feature, its popularity is due as well to the manner of presentation as to the matter selected. The style, though not of the highest quality, is compact, clear, comprehensive, and interesting. By the extensive use of newspaper sources, the value of which he was one of the first to appreciate, the author has been able to chart with remarkable clearness the ebb and flow of public opinion, and his treatment of hotly-controverted questions is singularly well balanced and impartial.

The faults of the work are chiefly those that are inherent in the method pursued. The narrative flows along with even depth, without dramatic force even in recounting the most acute crises. The emphasis upon social forces tends inevitably to the dwarfing of great individuals, but sometimes one feels that too little credit is given to the influence of powerful personalities. As is true of every extensive work, it has been superseded in the treatment of many special topics by more recent monographic studies. But on the whole, the work is sound, scholarly, and attractively told. It is sanner than Von Holst, and more substantial than Schouler.

The last volume of the series, with which this review is more especially concerned, exhibits in general the same qualities as its predecessors. The first chapter, entitled "The Union in Danger," opens upon the excitement over the Wilmot Proviso at the beginning of 1849. The angry discussions in the press, in state legislatures, in Congress, the Nashville Convention, and the averting of the danger through the compromise measures of 1850 are vividly set forth. This is followed by a long chapter on "Social Ferment," in which a multitude of causes and symptoms of disturbance are detailed, including such matters as the rush to the California gold fields, new municipal problems, the anti-Catholic riots, railroad wars, strikes and the labor movement, the woman's rights crusade, spiritualism, and anti-liquor legislation. In order follow chapters on "International Entanglements"—over filibustering in Cuba, the fisheries, and the reception of Kosuth—"The Passing of the Whigs" in 1852, the "Repeal of the Missouri Compromise," and "Bleeding Kansas." One chapter is given to the panic of 1857, another to the party quarrels over the Lecompton Constitution and the Lincoln-Douglas debates, and another to the African slave trade. An account of the attempts to open routes to California, of the difficulties with the Mormons, and the discovery of gold in Colorado, precedes a long chapter on the "Eve of Secession." This last covers John Brown's last exploit in Kansas and his raid on Harper's Ferry, the rapidly rising excitement in the South and the threats of secession, the split in the Democratic party, and the presidential nominations. The final chapter, called somewhat inappropriately "The Confederate States of America," describes the secession movement

in the cotton States, the perplexities of Buchanan, the attempts at compromise, and ends abruptly with the inauguration of Lincoln.

In this volume Professor McMaster has not materially modified the findings of previous writers; but he has given a freshness and a new interest to the period by the wealth of newspaper comment on nearly every topic of importance. This is the best index to the state of the popular mind and it has been used with great skill. The author's gift for keen analysis is continually illustrated in his handling of long speeches and tiresome public documents. The reviewer wishes that a chapter had been devoted to the economic and social conditions of the South on the eve of secession; for, though Professor McMaster may justly conceive that such a discussion belongs with an account of the war, it nevertheless would have given the whole movement for Southern independence a better setting. But the volume is a very satisfactory one, considering the limitations of space, and forms a worthy conclusion to a nobly-conceived and a well-executed monumental work.

The University of Texas.

CHAS. W. RAMSDELL.

FISH, CARL RUSSELL. *The Development of American Nationality.* New York: American Book Co., 1913. Pp. xxxix, 535. \$2.25.

This is not a dictionary of United States history. Professor Fish has assumed that the instructor may be able to supply some of the details of his subject and that students may obtain others from collateral reading. As a result he has been able to give in the space at his disposal a remarkably fresh, unhurried, interesting, and well balanced presentation and discussion of the main lines of national development. The interrelation of social, economic, and political forces is worked out with unusual clearness. The influence of the West and the frontier is treated in two separate chapters (V and XI) and in scattered paragraphs throughout the book. Less than a dozen pages are devoted to the military operations of the three wars of the period. Professor Fish thinks this less than their real importance merits, but justifies his summary treatment on the ground that students reach college with a better knowledge of military movements than of any other phase of United States history, which makes it possible to treat the subject lightly in a college text. This is probably true, and true or not, despite signs of reviving interest in military history, few teachers will quarrel with his decision. In the treatment of sectional issues the author apparently proceeds from the fundamentally important realization that our particular form of nationalism—which is a good sort—is the result and creation of co-ordinated sectionalism. In this view no apologies are necessary for sectionalism. It is only necessary to get at a sympathetic understanding of its basis and to make a sympathetic statement of its expression in our national development. Here and there an isolated sentence may encounter captious criticism, but as a whole the book gives the impression of ungrudging fairness. In some instances, perhaps, additional particulars might be endured with patience. In view of its importance in establishing congressional control of territories, for example, a slightly fuller discussion of the first government of Louisiana might be desirable; and in fairness to Calhoun it should be added to the otherwise excellent statement of his theory of nullification that he did not claim for a single state the right to nullify permanently a federal law, but only the right to suspend it temporarily, pending the vote of the other states. And specialists (each in his narrower field) will discover minor sins of commission, as has the reviewer—a very few,—but they need not be considered here. The book has every appearance of being an extremely useful and practical text.

University of Texas.

EUGENE C. BARKER.

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

MARY W. WILLIAMS, M.A., EDITOR.

"When the States Seceded," ("Harper's Magazine," January) notes from the diary of Mrs. Eugene McLean, wife of a Confederate army officer, portrays vividly the tense days opening the Civil War period.

"The Quarterly Journal of Economics," for November, contains two timely articles of special interest, "The Tariff Act of 1913," by Professor F. W. Taussig, of Harvard University, and "The Income Tax of 1913," by Joseph A. Hill, of Washington, D. C.

"The Crossing of the Rhine by Blücher, New Year's Eve, 1814," is graphically described by Colonel D. von Kurnatowski, in "Illustrierte Zeitung" for January. The article is illustrated from a painting by Wilhelm Camphausen.

The same number of the "Zeitung" contains an article upon the late King of Abyssinia, Menelik II, by L. Zander.

"Poinsett's Mission to Mexico, a Discussion of His Interference in Internal Affairs," a long article by Professor William R. Manning, of the University of Texas, appears in the "American Journal of International Law" for October. The study, based largely on manuscript material, shows clearly that Poinsett was guilty of improper conduct in Mexico, which fact was recognized by the American Government.

The "Bulletin of the Pan-American Union" for November also contains an article by Professor Manning, on "The Mexican Foreign Office Archives." The earlier manuscripts are in some cases entirely unclassified; but those of a later period are preserved in better order. However, the courtesy and helpfulness of the Mexican archivists go far towards compensating for the handicaps experienced by the research student.

The January number of "World's Work" is largely concerned with "All about Mexico." Perhaps the most important article is that by Professor A. B. Hart, of Harvard University, entitled "Mexico and the Mexicans," a description of "the strange mixture of three races that has intellectual power without common sense and that has failed to learn economic independence or the art of self-government in nearly a century of pretended republican institutions."

Articles upon the subject of immigration by Professor E. A. Ross, of the University of Wisconsin, appear in the "Century" for January and February. In the former number the political consequences of immigration are considered, and in the latter, the racial consequences. A sharp note of warning against existing American immigration laws is clear in both articles. Such a system as now exists Professor Ross believes, threatens racial and political demoralization and destruction.

"In July of the year 1846 15,000 Mormons were said to be encamped or toiling along the Iowa trails westward, with 3,000 wagons, 30,000 head of cattle, horses and mules, and a vast number of sheep. Indeed, at one time no less than two thousand covered wagons could be counted."

The above is quoted from "The Mormon Trails in Iowa," by Jacob Van der Zee in the "Iowa Journal of History and Politics" for January.

A study of the office of *adelantado*, by Roscoe R. Hill, of Columbia University, is found in the "Political Science Quarterly" for December. This office, which existed in Spain at least as early as the thirteenth century, held a place in Spanish-America during the period of discovery and conquest, and was continued until the beginning of the seventeenth century when most of the territory claimed by Spain had been brought under the control of viceroys and *audiencias*.

LIST OF BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT
PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM
DECEMBER 27, 1913, TO JANUARY 31, 1914.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

American History.

- Bankston, Marie L. B. Campfire stories of the Mississippi Valley campaign. New Orleans: L. Graham Co. [430 Common St.]. 171 pp. \$1.10.
- Carr, Clark E. History of bringing the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé R. R. to Galesburg. Galesburg, Ill.: Wagoner Pr. Co. 85 pp. 60c.
- Dixon, Joseph K. The vanishing race . . . and the Indians' story of the Custer fight. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page. 231 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Dunaway, Wayland F. Reminiscences of a rebel. [Author Capt. Co. I, 49th Va. Reg., Army of Northern Va.]. New York: Neale Pub. Co. 133 pp. \$1.00.
- Esshom, Frederick E. Pioneers and prominent men of Utah. Salt Lake City: Utah P. neers Bk. Pub. Co. 1,319 pp. \$25.00.
- Gordy, W. F. Elementary history of the U. S. New York: Scribner. 315 pp. 50c.
- . Stories of early American history. New York: Scribner. 206 pp. 50c.
- Hadden, James. A history of Uniontown, Fayette Co., Pa. Akron, O.: New Werner Co. 824 pp. \$3.00.
- Heffner, William C. History of poor relief legislation in Pennsylvania. Cleona, Pa.: Holzapfel Pub. Co. [W. Bains, 1215 Market St., Phila., agent]. 302 pp. \$1.00.
- Hornbeck, Robert. Roubidoux's ranch in the 70's. Riverside, Cal.: Press Pr. Co. 230 pp. \$1.50.
- James, J. A., and Sanford, A. H. American history. New York: Scribner. 565 pp. \$1.31.
- Knight, Edgar Wallace. The influence of reconstruction on education in the South. New York: Teachers' College, Columbia Univ. 100 pp. \$1.00.
- Mathews, William G. Martial law in West Virginia. Washington, D. C.: Govt. Pr. Off. 21 pp.
- Perrin, John W. History of the Cleveland sinking fund of 1862. Cleveland, O.: Globe Pr. Co. 68 pp. \$2.50.
- Warren, Rose H. A southern home in war times. New York: Broadway Pub. Co. \$1.25.

Ancient History.

- Kuhn, Rev. Albert. Roma; ancient, subterranean and modern Rome. In 18 pts. Parts 1 and 2. New York: Benziger. Each 35c. net.
- Maspero, Sir G. C. C. Egyptian art. New York: Appleton. 223 pp. \$7.50 net.
- Quintus Smyrnaeus. The fall of Troy [Loeb Class. Lib.]. New York: Macmillan. 628 pp. \$1.50.
- Warrack, John. Greek sculpture [100 full page ills.]. New York: Brentano. \$1.50 net.

English History.

- Balfour, Arthur J. Nationality and Home Rule. New York: Longmans. 24 pp. 20c.
- Ballard, Joseph. England in 1815 as seen by a young Boston merchant. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 181 pp. \$1.25 net.
- Cheyney, Edward P. A history of England from the defeat of the Armada to the death of Elizabeth. In 2 vols. Vol. 1. New York: Longmans. \$3.50 net.
- Gairdner, James. Lollardy and the reformation in England. Vol. 4. New York: Macmillan. 422 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Innes, Arthur D. A history of England and the British Empire. In 4 vols. Vol. 1 to 1485. New York: Macmillan. 539 pp. \$3.40 net.
- Macaulay, Thomas Babington, Lord. The history of England, etc. In 6 vols. Vol. 1. New York: Macmillan. 516 pp. \$3.25 net.
- . The history of England. In 5 vols. New York: Sully and Kleinteich. \$7.50.
- Schofield, F. H. Story of Manitoba. In 3 vols. Chicago: S. J. Clarke Pub. Co. 443, 759, 734 pp. \$25.00.
- Slater, Gilbert. The making of modern England. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 308 pp. \$2.50 net.

Tracy, F. B. The tercentenary history of Canada, from Champlain to Laurier. 3 vols. New York: P. F. Collier & Son. \$2.25.

Ward, Wilfrid P. The Oxford movement. New York: Dodge Pub. Co. 94 pp. 20c. net.

Worsfold, William B. The reconstruction of the colonies under Lord Milner. In 2 vols. New York: Dutton. 376, 430 pp. \$7.50 net.

European History.

Howard, Clare. English travellers of the Renaissance. New York: John Lane. 233 pp. (19 pp. bibl.). \$2.50 net.

Mignet, François A. M. History of the French Revolution, 1789-1814. [Bohn's Pop. Lib.] New York: Macmillan. 472 pp. 35c. net.

Perkins, James B. Writings, in 6 vols. [France under Mazarin; France under Louis XV; France under the Regency; France in the American Revolution.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. Each \$2.00 net.

Ranke, Leopold von. The history of the Popes during the last four centuries. In 3 vols. [Bohn's Pop. Lib.] New York: Macmillan. 548, 573, 500 pp. Each 35c. net.

Sabatini, Rafael. Torquemada and the Spanish inquisition. New York: Brentano. \$3.75 net.

Usher, Abbott P. The history of the grain trade in France, 1400-1710. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. 405 pp. (10½ pp. bibl.). \$2.00 net.

Vecchi, Paolo de. Italy's civilizing mission in Africa. New York: Brentano. 79 pp. 50c. net.

Medieval History.

Arnold, Hugh. Stained glass of the M. A. in England and France. New York: Macmillan. 269 pp. \$7.00 net.

Miscellaneous.

Esmein, Adhémar. A history of continental criminal procedure with special reference to France. Boston: Little, Brown. 640 pp. (8 pp. bibl.). \$4.50 net.

Johnston, Reginald F. Buddhist China. New York: Dutton. 502 pp. \$5.00 net.

Kaye, James R. Essentials of history and historie chart system. Phila.: Historical Pub. Co. 220 pp. \$2.00.

Mansfield, Robert E. Progressive Chile. New York: Neale Pub. Co. 254 pp. \$2.00.

Manucci, Niccolo. A Pepys of Mogul India, 1653-1708, being an abridged edition of Storia do Mogor. New York: Dutton. 310 pp. \$3.50 net.

Minerva. Jahrbuch der gelehrten Welt, 1913-1914. New York: Lemcke and Beuchner. \$5.00.

Moore, George F. History of religions. New York: Scribner. \$2.50 net.

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